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218

**TEACHING AND LEARNING ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL
LANGUAGE IN PORTUGAL: POLICY, PRACTICE AND PERCEPTIONS**

by

Luís Sérgio Pinto Guerra

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of

PhD in English Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics

Centre for English Language Teacher Education

University of Warwick

November, 2005

This research was made possible by the grants received from the European Social Fund of the European Union for the Programme of Educational Development for Portugal (PRODEP) – Contest no. 2/5.3/PRODEP/2001.



Table of Contents

Table of Contentsi

List of Tables and Figuresvii

Acknowledgementsix

Abstract x

Chapter 1: Setting the scene 1

1.1. Introduction 1

1.2. Aims, scope and significance of the study2

1.3. The English language in the 21st century.....5

1.4. English as an international language7

1.4.1. Models of describing international English8

1.4.2. The global spread of English and Standard English 10

1.5. ELT in Portugal: a brief historical overview 11

1.6. The Portuguese Educational System today 14

1.6.1. The 2001 Basic Education Curricular Reorganization.....14

1.6.2. The Decree-law 6/200117

1.6.3. The Secondary School Educational Reform of 200217

1.6.4. Tertiary education: universities and polytechnics.....21

1.6.4.1. ELT in universities and polytechnics.....22

1.7. The structure of the thesis.....23

1.8. Summary of chapter23

Chapter 2: Literature review.....25

2.1. Introduction25

2.2. International Standard English25

2.2.1. American English and British English27

2.3. EIL as cross-cultural communication.....29

2.4. EIL as a language variety32

2.5. EIL and the nativeness paradigm34

2.5.1. Ownership of English.....37

2.6. Criticisms of EIL39

2.7. Teaching English as an International Language.....44

2.7.1. Native teachers vs. non-native teachers in TEIL.....48

2.7.2. Motivation and the EIL learner50

2.8. EIL as a new set of attitudes.....55

2.8.1. Why measure attitudes57

2.8.1.1. Studies on native speakers’ attitudes toward language58

2.8.1.2. Studies on non-native speakers’ attitudes toward language58

2.8.1.3. Studies on attitudes toward non-native English.....58

2.8.1.4. Studies on attitudes toward native and non-native varieties of English in Europe
.....59

2.8.2. Studies on attitudes toward EIL	59
2.9. Summary of chapter	60
Chapter 3: Design and methodology of the study	62
3.1. Introduction	62
3.2. Research paradigm	63
3.2.1. Postpositivism	63
3.3. Research questions	63
3.4. Methods of data collection and analysis: qualitative & quantitative approaches	66
3.4.1. Using a survey to collect data	66
3.4.2. Triangulation	67
3.4.3. Questionnaires.....	68
3.4.4. Interviews.....	69
3.4.5. Documentary analysis	72
3.5. The subjects and documents in the study	73
3.6. The questionnaires in the study	75
3.6.1. The students' questionnaire.....	75
3.6.1.1. The questionnaire variables	75
3.6.1.2. The questionnaire structure.....	79
3.6.1.2.1. Section I.....	79
3.6.1.2.2. Section II	81
3.6.1.2.3. Section III.....	81
3.6.1.3. The questionnaire piloting	83
3.6.2. The teachers' questionnaire.....	83
3.6.2.1. The questionnaire variables	83
3.6.2.2. The questionnaire structure.....	85
3.6.2.2.1. Section I.....	86
3.6.2.2.2. Section II	86
3.6.2.3. The questionnaire piloting	88
3.7. The interviews in the study.....	88
3.7.1. The video activity.....	89
3.7.2. The interview piloting	90
3.8. Documentary analysis in the study.....	90
3.8.1. ELT in basic and secondary school educational policies.....	91
3.8.2. Classroom materials	92
3.9. Reliability, validity and objectivity	93
3.9.1. Reliability.....	93
3.9.2. Validity.....	93
3.9.2.1. Construct validity and content validity.....	94
3.9.2.2. Internal validity and external validity.....	95
3.9.3. Objectivity.....	95
3.10. Limitations of the study	96
3.11. Summary of chapter	97
Chapter 4: The theory of EIL in Portugal – what the documents advocate.....	98
4.1. Introduction	98
4.2. ELT syllabi	99
4.2.1. The 1995 English syllabus for the 2 nd <i>ciclo</i> , 3 rd <i>ciclo</i> and Secondary levels.....	99
4.2.1.1. The <i>Introduction</i>	100

4.2.1.2. The <i>Aims</i>	101
4.2.1.3. The <i>Objectives</i>	101
4.2.1.4. The <i>Contents</i>	102
4.2.1.4.1. The content dimensions: topics and objectives	102
4.2.1.5. The <i>Methodological Guidelines</i>	107
4.2.1.5.1. Some suggestions for curriculum development	108
4.2.1.5.2. Evaluation	108
4.2.1.6. Teachers' reactions to the English syllabus	109
4.2.1.7. EIL and the 1995 English syllabus	110
4.2.2. The 2001 Basic Education National Curriculum – Essential Competences	111
4.2.2.1. The <i>General Competences</i>	111
4.2.2.2. The <i>Specific Competences – Foreign Languages</i>	113
4.2.2.3. EIL and the 2001 Basic Education National Curriculum	115
4.2.3. The 2002 Secondary School Educational Reform	116
4.2.3.1. The <i>Aims and Objectives</i>	118
4.2.3.2. <i>General Vision of Programme Contents</i>	118
4.2.3.3. <i>Skills development</i>	119
4.2.3.4. <i>Programme components</i>	119
4.2.3.4.1. <i>Sociocultural Dimension</i>	120
4.2.3.4.2. <i>The English Language</i>	123
4.2.3.5. <i>Methodological Guidelines</i>	123
4.2.3.6. <i>Evaluation</i>	124
4.2.3.7. <i>Resources</i>	124
4.2.3.8. EIL and the 2002 Secondary School Educational Reform	126
4.3. Classroom materials	127
4.3.1. References to and uses of native and non-native varieties of English	128
4.3.1.1. References to differences between AmE and BrE	131
4.3.1.2. References to and use of AmE and BrE	132
4.3.1.3. References to and use of other varieties/accents	132
4.3.1.4. Mixing varieties	132
4.3.1.5. The 1995 ELT Syllabus for Basic Education vs. the 2001 Basic Education National Curriculum	133
4.3.1.6. The 1995 ELT Syllabus for Secondary Education vs. the 2002 Secondary Education Reform	134
4.3.2. References to native and non-native cultures	134
4.3.2.1. References to the US, UK and other ENL cultures	137
4.3.2.2. References to ESL and EFL cultures	138
4.3.2.3. International references and references to Portugal	139
4.3.2.4. Year 12 materials	139
4.3.2.5. The 1995 ELT Syllabus for Basic Education vs. the 2001 Basic Education National Curriculum	141
4.3.2.6. The 1995 ELT Syllabus for Secondary Education vs. the 2002 Secondary Education Reform	141
4.3.3. Comparing the two perspectives of analysis: language and cultural references	142
4.4. ELT syllabi and classroom materials: converging or diverging?	142
4.5. Summary of chapter	143
Chapter 5: The practice of EIL in Portugal I – attitudes toward the linguistic dimensions of EIL	145
5.1. Introduction	145

5.2. Familiarity with English varieties and accents	146
5.2.1. Students' self-reported familiarity with English varieties/accents	146
5.2.2. Teachers' self-reported familiarity with English varieties/accents	151
5.3. Learning and teaching varieties.....	152
5.3.1. Students' attitudes towards learning varieties.....	152
5.3.2. Teachers' attitudes towards learning/teaching varieties.....	157
5.4. Students' attitudes toward native and non-native accents.....	164
5.4.1. Reacting to accents on a semantic differential scale.....	165
5.4.1.1. Analysis of accent categories.....	166
5.4.2. Students' liking for native and non-native accents	169
5.4.3. Students' desire for native and non-native accents	170
5.4.4. Students' identification of the speaker's origin.....	171
5.4.4.1. Listening to accents on tape.....	171
5.4.4.2. Watching a video with native and non-native speakers.....	174
5.4.5. Students' attitudes toward native and non-native accents: concluding remarks	176
5.5. Using varieties: consistency or mixing?	177
5.5.1. Students' data	177
5.5.2. Teachers' data	182
5.6. Summary of chapter	187
 Chapter 6: The practice of EIL in Portugal II – attitudes toward the cultural dimensions of EIL	190
6.1. Introduction	190
6.2. Learning and teaching about specific cultures	191
6.2.1. Students' attitude toward learning about specific cultures.....	191
6.2.2. Teachers' attitude toward learning/teaching about specific cultures	196
6.2.3. Teaching culture in ESP or Teacher Training classes.....	203
6.3. Importance of learning about cultures in general	205
6.4. Summary of chapter	208
 Chapter 7: The practice of EIL in Portugal III – attitudes toward issues of language affiliation	210
7.1. Introduction	210
7.2. Native speakers' (NSs) and non-native speakers' (NNSs) use of English.....	211
7.2.1. Students' attitudes toward NSs' and NNSs' use of English.....	211
7.2.2. Teachers' attitude toward NSs' and NNSs' use of English.....	213
7.3. Language competence vs. native target in speaking/writing in English.....	216
7.3.1. Students' goal in speaking English	216
7.3.2. Teachers' belief about students' goal in speaking English	219
7.3.3. Students' goal in writing in English.....	222
7.3.4. Teachers' belief of students' goal in writing in English	223
7.3.5. Students' perception of own English	226
7.4. Language ownership.....	228
7.4.1. Students' view on ownership of English.....	228
7.4.2. Teachers' view on ownership of English	229
7.5. Language intelligibility	231
7.5.1. Students' view on language intelligibility.....	231
7.5.2. Teachers' view on language intelligibility	232
7.6. Native teachers (NTs) and non-native teachers (NNTs) in ELT	234
7.6.1. Students' choice of NTs and NNTs	235
7.6.2. Teachers' views on NTs and NNTs	239

7.7. Students' motivation to learn English	242
7.8. Summary of chapter	245
Chapter 8: Overall discussion and conclusion.....	248
8.1. Introduction	248
8.2. Overview and discussion of research findings	248
8.2.1. EIL in English language policies and classroom materials.....	249
8.2.2. Students' and teachers' attitudes toward EIL.....	252
8.2.3. The theory and practice of EIL	258
8.3. Contributions and implications.....	260
8.4. Concluding remarks.....	265
References	267
<i>Primary Sources</i>	267
<i>Secondary Sources</i>	269
Appendices	286
Appendix 3.1: Location of subjects' educational institutions – orange circles	287
(Map of Portugal)	287
Appendix 3.2: Subjects' affiliation and courses studied/taught	288
Appendix 3.3: Students' questionnaire.....	290
Appendix 3.4: Teachers' questionnaire.....	296
Appendix 3.5: Students' interview: topics of questions	301
Appendix 3.6: Teachers' interview: topics of questions	303
Appendix 3.7: Interview sample (excerpt of transcription).....	305
Appendix 3.8: Textbooks and supplementary material analyzed	308
Appendix 4.1: Sample of identification of cultural references and references to and uses of varieties of English.....	310
Appendix 5.1: Students' familiarity with EFL accents and Affiliation.....	318
Appendix 5.2: Students' familiarity with EFL accents and Course	319
Appendix 5.3: Students' familiarity with EFL accents and Length of time studying English.....	320
Appendix 5.4: Students' familiarity with ENL varieties and Length of time studying English	321
Appendix 5.5: Students' familiarity with ESL varieties and Spending time outside Portugal.....	322
Appendix 5.6: Mean ranks and frequency per group (affiliation) and statements	323
Appendix 5.7: Mean ranks and frequency per group (course) and statements.....	324
Appendix 5.8: Mean ranks and frequency per group (length of time studying English) and statements.....	325
Appendix 5.9: Teachers' affiliation and importance of learning non-native English	326
Appendix 5.10: Type of country visited and importance of learning non-native English (teachers' responses)	327
Appendix 5.11: Native and non-native teachers and importance of learning international English.....	328
Appendix 5.12: Mean scores and standard deviation in the five categories (<i>friendly accent</i> , <i>clear accent</i> , <i>polished accent</i> , <i>no accent</i> , <i>not funny accent</i>)	329
Appendix 5.13: Students' reaction to accents ('Friendly' accent)	330
Appendix 5.14: Students' reaction to accents ('Clear' accent)	331
Appendix 5.15: Students' reaction to accents ('Polished' accent)	332

Appendix 5.16: Students' reaction to accents ('No' accent).....	333
Appendix 5.17: Students' reaction to accents ('Not funny' accent).....	334
Appendix 5.18: Students' reaction to EFL accents and Affiliation.....	335
Appendix 5.19: Students' reaction to ENL accents and Course.....	336
Appendix 5.20: Students' reaction to EFL accents and Length of time studying English	338
Appendix 5.21: Identification of speakers' origin (UK & US)	339
Appendix 5.22: Suggested speakers' country of origin and frequency (in brackets)	340
Appendix 5.23: Students' identification of the speaker's origin (PORTUGAL) and Affiliation	341
Appendix 5.24: Students' identification of the speaker's origin (USA and UK) and Course.....	342
Appendix 5.25: Students' identification of the speaker's origin (INDIA and UK) and Length of time studying English.....	343
Appendix 5.26: Students' interview – Video Activity: responses of subjects (identification of speaker's gender, age and place of origin/language affiliation)	344
Appendix 5.27: Using varieties – frequency and percentage of answers (per category/total).....	346
Appendix 5.28: Using varieties – frequency/percentage of teachers' answers in category <i>a</i> and length of time teaching English.....	347
Appendix 5.29: Using varieties – frequency/percentage of teachers' answers in category <i>b</i> and experience in teaching English.....	348
Appendix 6.1: Medians and percentiles for statements (Learning about specific cultures) ..	349
Appendix 6.2: Mean ranks and frequency per group (course) and statements.....	350
Appendix 6.3: Mean ranks and frequency per group (length of time studying English) and statements	351
Appendix 6.4: Mean ranks and frequency per group (spending time outside Portugal) and statements	352
Appendix 6.5: Mean ranks and frequency per group (length of time teaching English) and statement.....	353
Appendix 6.6: Mean ranks and frequency per group (language affiliation) and statement...354	
Appendix 6.7: Mean ranks and frequency per group (experience in teaching English) and statement.....	355
Appendix 6.8: Mean ranks and frequency per group (course) and statement	356
Appendix 6.9: Mean ranks and frequency per group (length of time studying English) and statement.....	357
Appendix 7.1: Students' attitude toward NSs' and NNSs' use of English and Course.....	358
Appendix 7.2: Students' attitude toward NSs' and NNSs' use of English and Spending time outside Portugal.....	359
Appendix 7.3: Students' choice of NTs or NNTs – frequency and percentage.....	360
Appendix 7.4: Teachers' views on NTs and NNTs in ELT – frequency and percentage	361
Appendix 7.5: Students' motivational factors	362
Appendix 7.6: Students' motivational factors – mean scores.....	363
Appendix 7.7: Students' motivation to learn English and Affiliation	364
Appendix 7.8: Students' motivation to learn English and Course.....	365
Appendix 7.9: Students' motivation to learn English and Length of time studying English	366
Appendix 7.10: Students' motivation to learn English and Spending time in an ESC or a NESC	367

List of Tables and Figures

Table 1.1: Three models of describing international English..... 9

Figure 1.1: Modiano’s model of centripetal circles..... 9

Table 1.2: The Portuguese Educational system after the Reform of 1973..... 14

Table 1.3: The Portuguese educational system..... 21

Table 3.1: Subjects’ affiliation (students) (Key: UE: University of Evora; UL: University of Lisbon; SE: School of Education; ST: School of Tourism)..... 77

Table 3.2: Subjects’ length of time studying English (students)..... 77

Table 3.3: Spending time in an ESC or a NESC (students)..... 78

Table 3.4: Length of time spent in ESCs and NESC (students)..... 78

Table 3.5: Subjects’ affiliation (teachers)..... 84

Table 3.6: Spending time in an ESC or a NESC (teachers)..... 85

Table 4.1: Some of the objectives proposed for the 2nd *ciclo*, 3rd *ciclo* and Secondary levels..... 101

Table 4.2: Core theme and areas of experience (2nd *ciclo*, 3rd *ciclo* and secondary levels)..... 102

Table 4.3: Some of the contents and objectives of the English Language component proposed for the 2nd *ciclo*, 3rd *ciclo* and Secondary levels..... 104

Table 4.4: Some of the contents and objectives of the Listening and Speaking skills proposed for the 2nd *ciclo*, 3rd *ciclo* and Secondary levels..... 106

Table 4.5: Classroom topics and subtopics..... 106

Table 4.6: References to/use of language varieties..... 130

Table 4.7: Cultural references..... 136

Table 4.8: Titles of units in Year 12 materials..... 139

Table 4.9: Cultural references in Unit 1 (PT3, textbook)..... 140

Table 5.1: Students’ self-reported familiarity with English varieties and accents..... 147

Table 5.2: Teachers’ self-reported familiarity with English varieties and accents..... 151

Table 5.3: Overall percentages for each statement and response (students).....	153
Table 5.4: Overall percentages for each statement and response (teachers).....	158
Figure 5.1: Profile of ratings given to ENL, ESL and EFL accents.....	166
Table 5.5: Students' liking for accents.....	170
Table 5.6: Students' own desire for having an accent.....	171
Figure 5.2: Identification of speakers' origin.....	172
Figure 5.3: Answers in each category (%) (N=209).....	178
Table 6.1: Overall percentages for each statement and response (students).....	192
Table 6.2: Overall percentages for each statement and response (teachers).....	197
Table 6.3: Overall percentages for each statement and response (students).....	206
Table 6.4: Overall percentages for each statement and response (teachers).....	207
Table 7.1: Students' goal in speaking English – percentage and frequency for each goal.....	217
Table 7.2: Teachers' belief of students' goal in speaking English – percentage and frequency of chosen goals.....	220
Table 7.3: Students' goal in writing in English – percentage and frequency for each goal.....	223
Table 7.4: Teachers' belief of students' goal in writing in English – percentage and frequency of chosen goals.....	224
Table 7.5: Students' perception of own English – frequency and percentage.....	227
Table 7.6: Students' reasons for having both NTs and NNTs.....	236
Table 7.7: Students' reasons for having no preference for NTs or NNTs.....	236
Table 7.8: Students' reasons for preferring NTs	237

Acknowledgements

I wish to express my deepest gratitude to my supervisors, Dr. Julia Khan and Dr. Richard Smith. I would not have come this far without their guidance and inspiration.

I would also like to thank my colleagues Paulo Mendes (University of Evora), Raul Filipe (School of Tourism of Estoril), Florencio Moniz (School of Education of Beja) and Vicky Hartnack (University of Lisbon) for their wholehearted cooperation.

My gratefulness also goes to Teresa Costa, Carla Castro, Vasco Corisco, Tom Grigg and James Muncie for devoting their personal and professional time to this study.

I also want to thank all research students at the PhD and EdD Programmes and the secretarial staff in CELTE for the continuous support, Nuno Teixeira at NAGP at the University of Evora and the Directors of the Department of Linguistics and Literatures at the University of Evora, Maria do Céu Fonseca and Ana Clara Birrento, for making it easier for me to cope with the intricacies of the administrative rules and regulations.

I'm deeply indebted to all teachers and students who took part in this study. Without them this research would not have taken place.

Finally, no words can express my gratitude to my parents, for providing me with the determination and persistence to achieve my ambitions and to Joaquim, for the unconditional support.

Abstract

This study consists in identifying and analyzing the theory and practice of English language teaching (ELT) in Portugal as far as issues of English as an International Language (EIL) are concerned. Through qualitative and quantitative research approaches (273 questionnaires, 22 interviews, 12 sets of pedagogic materials and 11 documents), it examines, firstly, aspects of EIL in the current basic and secondary education national policies and how ELT materials have interpreted the national guidelines and, secondly, how teachers and students view central aspects of EIL.

There is an overall tendency for ELT in Portugal to incorporate the concept of EIL not only because most subjects show awareness of the global role of English today but also because the national ELT policies embrace the notion of EIL. However, while the current policies suggest that English classes should integrate linguistic and cultural aspects of English speaking communities, such directives do not seem to be fully developed in the classroom. Although the English syllabus and textbooks for basic and secondary education show some significant references to some English speaking cultures and English varieties, mainly American English (AmE), some subjects displayed some quite conservative attitudes towards English learning and teaching stating that British English (BrE) is the only variety to be learned and that there is not much usefulness in learning about other varieties.

To conclude, this study identifies possible consequences that the findings may bring to the teaching of English in the international, European and Portuguese contexts. Moreover, it emphasizes the importance of expanding the EIL debate to include the voices of the Expanding Circle, in the sense that a thorough analysis of learners' and teachers' attitudes toward EIL can help identify the present state and future developments in the use of English all over the world.

Chapter 1: Setting the scene

1.1. Introduction

Fernando Pessoa (1888-1935), for many the most emblematic poet of the Portuguese language of all time, once wrote, sometime in the beginning of the 20th century, about the advantages of an international language and what language, living or dead, could naturally become universally accepted (Pessoa, 1997). He believed that this international language could never be a fabricated one:

Mankind will not accept an unnatural language for natural communication. That is against the run of their instincts and whatever intelligence is left over once those instincts are discounted. No man, “that is a man” will accept to converse, over drinks or the refusal of them, in Valapuk, or Esperanto, or Ido, or whatever the spiritual puppet may be. He will prefer to speak brokenly in an alien language that has been born, to speak in the disgusting perfection of a language that has been made. (112)

For Pessoa, there could be only one language to play this international role: “If we are to have a natural universal language, that language should be English, and it will serve both as a cultural and as a natural language” (114). Although at that time he thought French could become the world’s lingua franca, he truly believed English had the two necessary characteristics in order to be accepted universally. First, it was simple and second, it was widely used. In other words, Pessoa predicted that English could eventually become “the Latin of the wider world” (150).

Interestingly, he even proposed that English and Portuguese could co-exist, each one serving distinctive purposes in different domains of life:

If we use English as a general and scientific language, we will use Portuguese as a literary and private language. We will have a domestic life and a public life. For what we want to learn, we will read in English; for what we want to feel, Portuguese. For what we want to teach, we will speak English; for what we want to say, we will say it in Portuguese. (151)

It is quite remarkable that a Portuguese poet at the beginning of the 20th century wrote about English as a prime candidate to become a universal language. He seemed to be quite certain of this outcome as he clearly admitted that bilingualism, in his case Portuguese and English, would become the norm. It is even more remarkable to see that

almost a century later, the English language has indeed become Portugal's and the world's lingua franca.

To all intents and purposes, the essence of this research lies in the present-day function of English as an international language (EIL) and how this new role of the language affected its learning and use in Portugal. In a discussion panel held at a conference organized by the Portuguese Association of Teachers of English in 2003, the coordinator of the team responsible for producing the recently implemented English Secondary School syllabus called attention to some important implications of the spread of English all over the world for English language teaching (ELT) in Portugal. First, the need to develop skills for accessing information and knowledge in English about contemporary society in general, and about societies where English is spoken in particular. Second, to develop skills in understanding English in a flexible way (dealing with a diversity of registers, and a variety of Englishes), and in making oneself understood in English for a variety of ends. Finally, to develop cultural awareness and intercultural competences for living in increasingly diversified and versatile societies (Moreira, 2004). As a result, it is imperative to investigate the condition of ELT in Portugal as English establishes itself as the world's lingua franca.

1.2. Aims, scope and significance of the study

The importance of this study stems from two central tenets. First, that any development in the debate about the role of English in the 21st century as a language of international communication cannot be promoted without an active participation of users of English as a foreign language (EFL). Second, that in a period of transformation of notions maintained in the pedagogy of English due to its global penetration, perhaps one of the fundamental aspects to be examined is the language users' attitudes towards the English language itself and the essential elements that are involved in learning and using the language.

ELT practitioners worldwide have seen a vast increase in the concern about issues of English as a global language over the past decades. Applied linguists and teachers have been investigating the peculiarities of learning, teaching and using the English language as it becomes the 21st century's lingua franca. However, 'global English' is in its

infancy and although studies have properly focused on topical issues, there is still a great deal of inquiry to be done. Significantly, the role and status of EIL in countries of the Expanding Circle, or EFL countries, have not been given the prominence they deserve.

Tomlinson (2004) has recently called attention to the limited participation of users of EFL in the discussion of EIL:

Ironically, so far the main proponents of teaching a variety of international English have been native speaker (or at least native speaker like) applied linguists. Not many are teachers and not many are users of English as a foreign language. They have provided expert insights into the characteristics and exponents of international English and are conducting the rigorous research that will soon provide us with very useful objective descriptions of the English used in international communication. But the danger is that an expert syllabus could be imposed on learners without any input from them and without a methodology to bring it to useful life. (5)

Significantly, some native and non-native applied linguists and teachers have been surveying the discourse of learning and teaching EIL in EFL countries: McKay (2003) has examined the teaching of EIL in the Chilean context; Kubota (2002) and Yamaguchi (2002) have studied the effects of globalization in the learning and teaching of English in Japan; Matsuda (2002, 2003) has argued for incorporating World Englishes in ELT practices in Japan; Sifakis & Sougari (2003) have pursued a similar approach to investigate pedagogical, ethical and methodological considerations of the international status of English, particularly in the Greek context.

Moreover, Seidlhofer (2004; Jenkins et al., 2001) and Jenkins (1998; Jenkins et al., 2001), among others, have been doing linguistic research on global English in general and on Euro-English as a variety of English as a European lingua franca, in particular. However, most studies which refer to English in a European country are usually concerned with one or more of the following areas: (a) Anglicisms or English expressions in European languages, e.g. in Dutch (Ridder, 1995), in German (Hilgendorf, 1996), and in Finnish (Hyrkestedt & Kalaja, 1998); (b) the status, role and use of English, e.g. in Sweden (Davidson, 1995), in Malta (Davidson, 1996), in Italy (Pulcini, 1997), in France (Truchot, 1997), in Greece (Oikonomiclis, 2003), and in Finland (Taavitsainen & Pahta, 2003); and (c) ELT and English teacher training, e.g. in the Netherlands (Van Essen, 1997), in Macedonia (Dimova, 2003) and in Germany

(Hilgendorf, 2005). To date, there has been no study in Portugal which aimed at identifying and analysing the predominant characteristics of English language learning and use in the Portuguese context. The first aim of this study is to fill this gap.

Applied linguists and language educators have been promoting lively debates over how globalization has been affecting the English language and how English has been influencing globalization. The increasing numbers of non-native speakers, the emergence of New Englishes, the use of English for intercultural communications, the intelligibility of standard and non-standard varieties of English, are just a few of the most talked about topics.

Nonetheless, one major issue which needs to be addressed in any discussion about EIL is the language users' attitudes toward English. In a presentation at the IATEFL Conference in Liverpool in 2004, Henry Widdowson stated that nowadays English as a lingua franca (ELF) is a matter of attitudes. Rather than just a linguistic issue, ELF is a pedagogical matter which involves significant changes in people's attitudes. Any examination of English as a global language would not be complete without a careful analysis of learners' and teachers' attitudes towards English. The second aim of this research is, thus, to investigate the beliefs and opinions of Portuguese users of English concerning the international role of the language.

More specifically, the purpose of this research is to identify and analyse the characteristics of English language teaching and learning in Portugal today as far as the perception of English as an international language is concerned. In order to attain a more complete account, two complementary aspects are examined: what documents advocate and students' and teachers' attitudes toward EIL. In essence, this study tries to identify the routes from *theory* into *practice*. Rather than just examining what the literature says about what ELT in Portugal is or should be, it is essential to identify students' and teachers' attitudes toward learning and teaching English.

Unfortunately, the Portuguese context is nearly devoid of substantial and significant studies and active debate in the area of ELT. This is not to say that the English language is unimportant or irrelevant in the Portuguese educational system. It is clear from the recent educational reforms that English is regarded as a vital instrument of international

communication. In view of this, if such a belief underlies ELT in Portugal, it becomes imperative to investigate how English is actually dealt with by both teachers and learners.

As the first such investigation in Portugal, this study hopes to contribute to the national ELT debate as it identifies some consequences that the findings might bring to the teaching of English in Portuguese basic and secondary schools and universities. Some of the possible implications of the study may affect the following levels: ELT in basic and secondary education, basic and secondary teacher training programmes in universities and polytechnics, teaching ESP in universities and polytechnics, materials writing, ELT policies for basic and secondary schools and research into ELT in Portugal.

Moreover, this study hopes to contribute to the ELT debate in Europe and worldwide. Despite their social and cultural uniqueness, many European countries may share similar pedagogical approaches to teaching English as a foreign language due to the educational guidelines set forth by the Council of Europe. It is expected that this study might help set modes of investigation into the role of English as an international language in other European countries. Lastly, it is hoped that this research might provide applied linguists and English language educators with relevant and useful findings, thus contributing to the ever-growing worldwide debate on the issues involved in learning and teaching English as a global language.

The following sections aim to present fundamental information on the context of this research. First, it examines the role of the English language in the 21st century as the preferred language in international communication, briefly mentioning some models of describing the international use of English (sections 1.3 and 1.4). Next, it offers a concise historical overview of ELT in Portugal and highlights the most important features of the present Portuguese educational system and the place of English in basic, secondary and tertiary education (sections 1.5 and 1.6).

1.3. The English language in the 21st century

There seems to be no doubt about the role of English in international communication at the present time. A lot has been said and written concerning the use of English worldwide. However, any consensual idea about English cannot necessarily be expressed through a single definition. Different labels have emerged at different times, appearing in books and articles which tried to understand the characteristics of this international role of the English language. English as a Global Language/Global English, English as a World Language/World English, English as an International Language/International English or English as a Lingua Franca are the most common ones. Erling (2005) suggests that these many labels are, on the one hand, the result of postcolonial ambiguity about the spread of English and, on the other hand, attempts to reshape ELT ideologies by emphasizing the international nature of English users and uses.

McArthur (2001, 2004) has presented the histories, meanings and definitions of those terms and some citations from a variety of sources. Even though most of these definitions share common ideas, a different name seems to appear when there is an attempt to identify some new concepts that were not present in other definitions. Basically, one can say that all these names attempt to present English as the world's language of communication. Nevertheless, some might end up emphasizing a peculiar aspect of this linguistic situation. For example, though the adjectives *global*, *world* and *international* seem to be quite similar in their meaning, each has its own connotations.

According to McArthur, the term *global* emerged in the 1990s due to the growing use of terms like *globalisation*, *global village*, and *global markets*, among others. While the terms *world English* and *international English* may sometimes be used as synonyms when defined as “an actual, perceived, or hoped-for standard form of English worldwide” (2001:5), in more general terms, *international English* can be defined as “the English language, usually but not necessarily in its standard form, either when used, taught, and studied as a lingua franca throughout the world, or when taken as a whole and used in contrast with American English, British English, South African English, etc.” (2001:4). McArthur (1998) adds that the term *World English* may be chosen for endorsing the planetary scope of English while *International English* may be the preferred phrase if one wants to avoid a totalitarian concept of linguistic dominance.

Even though McArthur used the term *lingua franca* in the above definition of International English, some authors consider this phrase inadequate. McArthur (2001) himself acknowledges this problem. He states that if, on the one hand, English is widely agreed to be the world's *lingua franca*, on the other hand, this term has traditionally referred to low-level makeshift languages. Gnutzmann (1999) makes a distinction between English as a global language and English as a *lingua franca*. He affirms that English as a *lingua franca* is a subset of English as a global language based on the idea that a *lingua franca* is an auxiliary language used for communication between native speakers of different languages, and is usually a third, neutral language different from the native languages of the communicators. Gnutzmann acknowledges that this may be the reality in many communicative situations in which English is used but it does not refer to the manifold uses of English on an international scale. Seidlhofer (2004) seems to prefer the term English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), stressing that because ELF has become “independent to a considerable degree of the norms established by its native users” (212), it is the best term which describes the importance of non-native speakers in shaping the language.

Despite these differences, most authors have been using the terms global English/English as a global language, world English/English as a world language, international English/English as an international language, and even English as a *lingua franca* with basically the same meaning. For the purposes of this study, to avoid a multiplicity of terms, the phrase *English as an international language/EIL* will be the preferred denomination, following McArthur's definition as the English used, taught, and studied as a *lingua franca* throughout the world.

1.4. English as an international language

Early in the debate on English as an international language, some authors provided a definition of EIL in order to distinguish it from other concepts such as English as a foreign language or English as a second language (ESL) (Campbell et al., 1983; Smith, 1983a; Smith, 1983b; Strevens, 1992). Whereas EFL and ESL have usually been related to non-native speakers of English communicating with native speakers of English (Campbell et al., 1983; Strevens, 1992; Trifonovich, 1981), English as an international language can be defined as “that English in all its linguistic and sociolinguistic aspects

which is used as a vehicle for communication between non-native speakers only, as well as between any combination of native and non-native speakers” (Campbell et al., 1983: 35).

Since the 1950s, though, the belief that a lingua franca should be necessary for the whole world has been contemplated in several areas such as the international academic and business communities (Crystal, 1997). But it was only in the early 80s that linguists and applied linguists started to debate the international role of English. Today, one can hardly think of English not serving that purpose. It is used worldwide in international business, travel, in airports and air traffic control, diplomacy, sport, the press, broadcasting, popular music, motion pictures, academic conferences and conventions, and education (Crystal, 1988; 1997).

1.4.1. Models of describing international English

Attempting to demonstrate the nature and development of the English language all over the world in the 20th century, McArthur (1998) has identified the three most common demographic and socio-political models used by linguists. The first one, proposed by Strang in 1970, identified the *A-speakers* – speakers of English as a mother tongue in the UK, the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa; the *B-speakers* – speakers who learn English in communities where the language has special status (mainly the former colonial territories in Asia and Africa); and the *C-speakers* – speakers who learn English as a foreign language as part of the country’s educational system.

In 1972, Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik proposed another three-group model of English: users of English as a Native Language (*ENL speakers*), users of English as a Second Language (*ESL speakers*) and users of English as a Foreign Language (*EFL speakers*).

Finally, in 1988, Braj B. Kachru formulated a variant of the ENL/ESL/EFL model. Kachru distinguishes three concentric circles: the *Inner Circle of English*, made up of ‘norm-providing varieties’, the *Outer Circle of English*, including ‘norm-developing varieties’ and the *Expanding Circle of English*, with ‘norm-dependent varieties’.

Basically, Kachru wanted to refrain from applying the monolithic view of English present in Quirk’s model that presupposed that there was only one English, property of the ENL group, despite the fact that there were different uses and users of the language.

In fact, these three models are just different ways of describing the same set of characteristics, each emphasizing one aspect of the international scope of English. Table 1.1 shows the similarities between the three models:

<i>Barbara Strang (1970)</i>	<i>Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech, Jan Svartvik (1972)</i>	<i>Braj B. Kachru (1988)</i>
A-speakers	ENL speakers	Members of the Inner Circle
B-speakers	ESL speakers	Members of the Outer Circle
C-speakers	EFL speakers	Members of the Expanding Circle

Table 1.1: Three models of describing international English

More recently, Modiano (1999a) proposed a “democratic basis for language development” (26). His model of centripetal circles (Figure 1.1) considers the speaker’s proficiency in English as far as an internationally comprehensible variety is concerned, breaking with the tradition of allocating geographical and political areas to define the situation of English in the world today. The categories in this model are fixed by the communicative abilities of the speakers, not by their place of residence or birth.

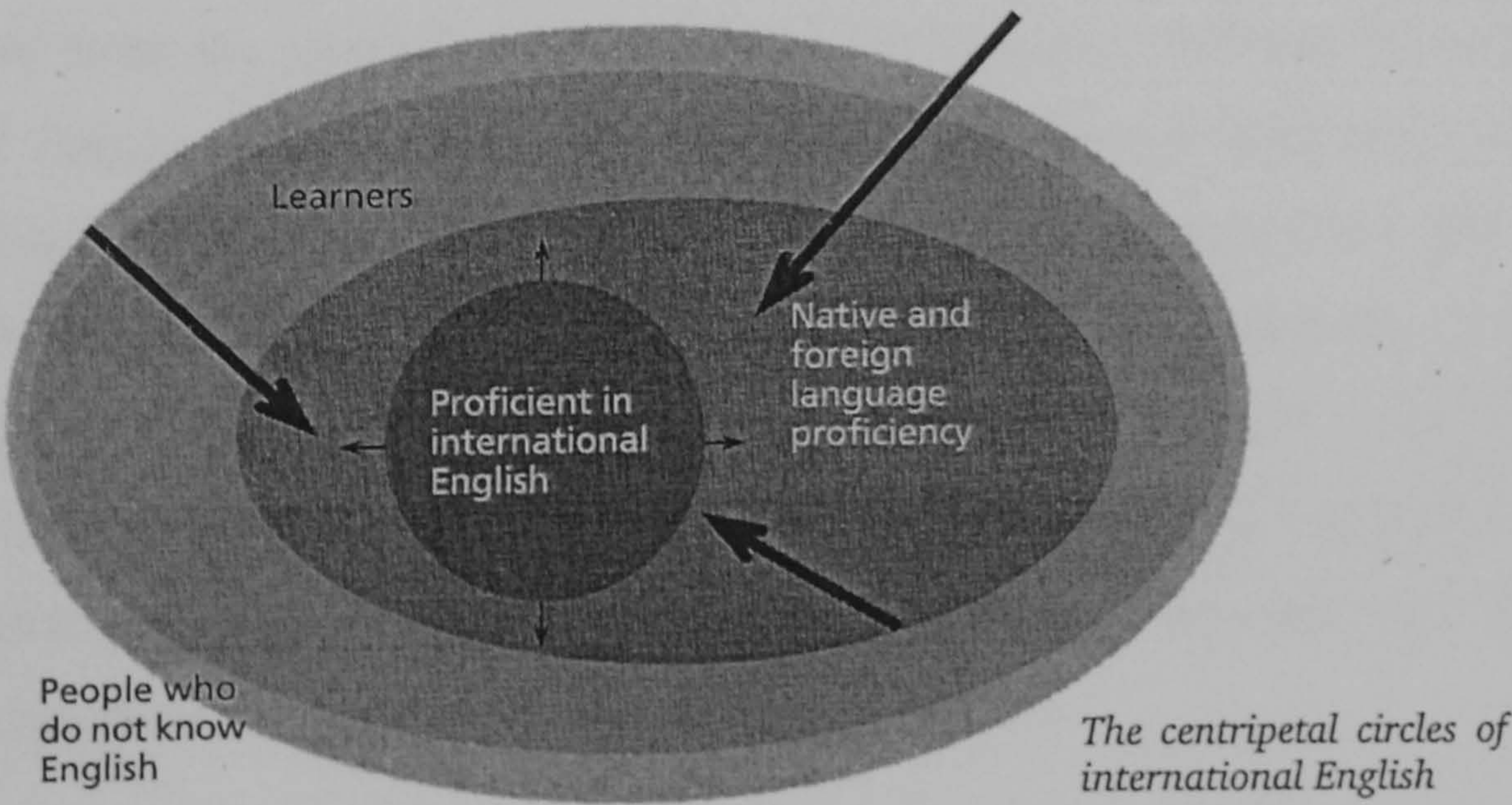


Figure 1.1: Modiano’s model of centripetal circles

Without devaluing Kachru's model of concentric circles, Modiano stresses that Kachru's Inner Circle is presented as the norm and the Outer and Expanding Circles as the followers. Though this model helped recognise the value of local varieties in the Outer Circle as educational norms in those territories, it perpetuates the idea that there is one primary English language, which is the property of the Inner Circle.

Proficient speakers of EIL take up the innermost circle in Modiano's model. By EIL, Modiano means "all of the varieties which function well in cross-cultural communication" (25). Then, the second circle is made up of those speakers with different levels of competence in a local variety that is not effective in international communication. Finally, the third circle is reserved for those who are learning a regional dialect, an indigenized variety or a standard variety of English.

Not all native speakers of Kachru's Inner Circle are competent users of international English. When that happens, these speakers should not occupy any central position if compared to some other speakers of English – native or non-native – who are competent communicators in international contexts. As a result, those native speakers who are not competent users of international English would occupy the second circle in Modiano's model.

One of the central tenets of this model is that speakers can move from the third to the second and from the second to the first categories, as they become more fluent in a variety of English that is understood internationally. Also, it introduces the idea of bidialectalism (see also Crystal 1988, 1997; McArthur 1998) in the sense that "speakers of English who speak a variety which is not operational in international contexts must also speak EIL if they want to be effective cross-culturally in English" (26). Predictably, as speakers in this model can move from one circle to another, as opposed to the quite static models proposed before, Modiano does not provide any estimated numbers of speakers in each of the centripetal circles.

1.4.2. The global spread of English and Standard English

Discussing the worldwide development of English, Crystal (1997) proposed that the English language has achieved its present global status due to the two ways in which it

has been employed by countries all over the world. First, where English has some kind of special status, it has been made the official language of several countries and used in diverse contexts such as the government, the legal system, commerce, the media, and the educational system. In such countries, English is characterised as a ‘second language’, as a complement to the speaker’s native language. Second, in other countries English has no official status and it is learnt in schools as a ‘foreign language’. Though Crystal makes use of the distinction between second or foreign use of the language to explain the worldwide importance of English, he points out that such distinction has lost some of the relevance it may have had. It is argued that one may find more use of English in some countries where it is learnt as a foreign language than in some of the countries where it has been described as a second language.

If it is necessary to view English as a single entity in order to explain its spread the world over, the idea of a single language gives way to a multiplicity of ‘languages’ – or varieties – if one considers the changes in the language as it starts to play a central role in the different countries where it is used. However, in this world of English language diversity, Crystal (1994) identifies an existing “strongly unifying force among the vast range of variation” (113). He believes that there is a variety of English that transcends differences and assures intelligibility in communication contexts involving speakers from diverse parts of the world. He calls it ‘World Standard English’, identifiable though in “a fairly primitive stage of development” (114), as we read newspapers or listen to the news in the English-speaking countries.

1.5. ELT in Portugal: a brief historical overview

As in most European countries, Latin and Greek were the most important languages taught in universities and colleges for several centuries. Eventually, other languages such as French, Hebrew, Italian, Castilian and even English could also be found in the curriculum of some faculties of theology or mathematics and military schools in Portugal during the 18th century. But it was only with the creation of the “Liceus” (secondary schools) in the 19th century that English language teaching started to play a significant role in the Portuguese educational system.

The “Liceus” in Portugal were created in 1836 though they were only implemented four years later. One of the ten subjects offered in these schools was *Modern Languages* (English, French and German)¹. In 1844, secondary education was reorganized and the number of subjects offered decreased from ten to six. Even though *Modern Languages* was removed from the curriculum, secondary schools in the most populated cities such as Lisbon, Oporto, Coimbra and Evora, continued to offer this subject. By the end of the century, secondary education lasted seven years, which were divided in “General Course” (5 years) and “Complementary Course” (2 years). At this time, German became the most important language taught in secondary schools². Later on, with the Reform of 1905, more attention is given to the teaching of modern languages and English substitutes German as the major language taught (Mata, 2001). In 1921, English is also offered in the two years of the “Complementary Course” (Carvalho, 2001).

However, it is only in the Reform of 1947 that English is given special relevance due to its role in international relations. Observing that it is not possible that secondary schools teach three languages plus the mother tongue, this reform withdraws German from the curriculum, maintaining French as a cultural vehicle and English. The reasons to maintain English were (1) due to its growing importance worldwide, (2) the relations between Portugal and England and (3) the neighbouring colonies of both countries. Furthermore, this reform emphasizes that English is the “mother-tongue of more than 200 million beings and is the most important of the approximately 1,500 modern languages around the world” (Decree no. 37:112 of 1948) (Mata, 2001:34).

The 1947 Reform divided secondary education in three stages called *ciclos*: the 1st *ciclo* (2 years), the 2nd *ciclo* (3 years) and the 3rd *ciclo* (2 years). The 1st and 2nd *ciclos* together were also called “General Course” and the 3rd *ciclo* “Complementary Course”. French was taught in the 1st and 2nd *ciclos*, while English was introduced in the 2nd *ciclo* in 5 weekly classes of 55 minutes each. In the 3rd *ciclo*, French and English continued to be taught and German was introduced, as well as Latin and Greek. It is important to note that in the 3rd *ciclo*, English was offered only to those students who intended to

¹ These languages could only be included in the curricula when the schools met the necessary conditions (Fernandes, 1998).

² Three foreign languages could be taught in the “General Course”: Latin, French and German or English (Carvalho, 2001).

study Germanic Philology or attend the Higher Institute of Economic and Financial Sciences or the Colonial Higher School (Mata, 2001).

The general aims in the teaching of English in the 2nd *ciclo* (Years 3, 4 and 5) were “to prepare students to the sequence of studies and to provide the most convenient means to satisfy the common needs of social life, as well as to improve the intellectual faculties of character building and the professional value and the strengthening of civil and moral virtues” through the emphasis on the receptive and productive skills of reading, listening, writing and speaking. The same text identified the language content (phonetics, vocabulary, morphology and syntax) to be covered along the three years (Mata, 2001:46).

In 1954, some changes were introduced in the English syllabus for the 2nd *ciclo* due to the changes in the average age of the students in this level. As for the 1st *ciclo*, the 1969 Decree makes it possible for students to choose English or French. Regardless of the language chosen, the aims of foreign language instruction in this level were the introduction to the use of means of comprehension and international exchanges (Mata, 2001).

In 1973, the Veiga Simão Reform reorganizes the Portuguese educational system. Basic education becomes compulsory comprising of eight years – four years of Primary Education followed by four years of Preparatory Education (see Table 1.2). In the years of Preparatory Education students could choose to study one foreign language (Mata, 2001).

The 1973 Reform³ increased the duration of secondary education by one year. The new English syllabus, however, was meant to be just a revision of the current one. So, in the 1974/75 English syllabus for the 1st *ciclo* of Secondary education, the general aim became to provide students with a tool of communication and culture which could give them the opportunity to interact with people from other countries and other languages (Mata, 2001).

³ There were other educational reforms in Portugal but it seemed relevant to identify only those which indicated major changes in the educational system and made reference to the teaching of modern languages, especially English.

Primary Education		Year 1
		Year 2
		Year 3
		Year 4
Secondary Education	Preparatory <i>ciclo</i>	Year 5
		Year 6
		Year 7
		Year 8
	General Course (1 st <i>ciclo</i>)	Year 9
		Year 10
	Complementary Course (2 nd <i>ciclo</i>)	Year 11
		Year 12

Table 1.2: The Portuguese Educational system after the Reform of 1973

The Comprehensive Law on the Education System of 1986 and the Reform of 1991:

The Comprehensive Law on the Education System (CLES) (1999) approved in October 1986 is a key document as it establishes the general framework for the Portuguese educational system and more specifically, the structural measures in the reform of both basic and secondary education. The CLES establishes that basic education consists of three consecutive *ciclos*, the 1st lasting for four years, the 2nd for two years, and the 3rd for three years. Secondary education courses, on the other hand, last for three years.

Five years later, the Reform of 1991 establishes the reorganization of all basic and secondary curricula. The CLES served as the guideline document to this curricula organization. Saldanha (2001) stresses this issue by stating that the curriculum reform was the major achievement of the 1991 educational reform. In 1995, new syllabi for the teaching of English in the 2nd *ciclo* (Years 5 and 6), 3rd *ciclo* (Years 7, 8, and 9) and Secondary (Years 10, 11 and 12) levels started to be implemented.

1.6. The Portuguese Educational System today

1.6.1. The 2001 Basic Education Curricular Reorganization

In accordance with the principles of the Decree-law 6/2001, the Ministry of Education defined the fundamental and structural competences in the development of a national curriculum in each *ciclo*, the achievement competences and the types of educational experiences to be provided to all students.

The Basic Education National Curriculum (BENC) (2001a) is the result of a long term project which involved a great number of schools, professional organizations, working parties, documents, meetings and reports. It is an essential tool in the process of innovation started in the school year 1996/1997, when the Ministry of Education, through the Department of Basic Education, launched the project 'Participated Study of Basic School Curricula'.

The analysis of the situation indicated several problems in basic schools, mainly in successfully promoting the nine years of mandatory education. In the 2nd and 3rd *ciclos*, there had been consistent levels of students' failure and dropout and a great difficulty in dealing with students' diversity and a vast range of contexts. Furthermore, the weak articulation among the three *ciclos* of basic education was considered one of the most negative aspects of the Portuguese educational system.

It was also observed that curriculum guidelines had been provided through lengthy prescriptive syllabi, organized by subjects and school years, thus contributing to excessively uniform pedagogical practices and impoverished contents and methodologies. A fresh look at education was imperative:

The functions of basic education cannot be merely seen as a series of subjects, rather they should aim at assuring the students' thorough education. To do so, the school must be a privileged context of education for citizenship and incorporate and articulate diversified learning experiences through the curriculum. (Abrantes, 2001:36)

The curriculum is not a list of subjects or a programme for each *ciclo* or school year, nor is the syllabus of each subject a mere list of contents and methods to be used in the classroom. Moreover, the curriculum cannot be understood as a set of strict prescriptive guidelines. In view of this, the national curriculum must include the main educational objectives, the competences to be developed and the learning experiences to be provided to all.

The role of teachers had also to be re-examined: "Teachers are not 'transmission belts' between syllabi or 'ready-made' textbooks and the students. Teachers are professionals who identify and interpret educational problems and look for solutions in the national

curriculum guidelines” (Abrantes, 2001:43). Such change of roles and attitudes required a high level of flexibility in terms of individual abilities, rhythm and organizational work patterns and is not compatible with uniform and strict guidelines. Thus, it was urgent to break away from a view of curriculum as a group of rules to be evenly followed in all classrooms to an attitude of support of novel practices of curriculum management through more autonomous schools. To achieve this, schools were then invited to submit projects of flexible curriculum management from 1997 to 2001.

In its last phase starting in 1999, draft versions of the general competences and the specific competences to each subject and subject areas were produced. These drafts were then discussed and analysed in several universities, schools of education, teachers’ associations and hundreds of schools of basic education. Several reports were then written serving as the basis of the final version of the essential competences. Finally, a draft proposal was submitted in 2000, which, after extensive public discussion gave origin to the Decree-law 6/2001.

The BENC also offers the guidelines towards a general redefinition of the content, style and structure of the current syllabi, based on the re-evaluation of the roles of the syllabi in terms of the whole curricular principles. This process assumes a gradual transformation of the kinds of nationwide curricular guidelines: from syllabus organized by subjects and school years and based on topics to be taught and their methodological suggestions to competences to be developed and types of experiences to be provided in each subject area and in each *ciclo*.

In the first stage, the curricular reorganization does not involve any change in the syllabi (the 1995 English syllabi are still being used) though it is clear it will be necessary in the future. At later stages and after the curricular reorganization is more established, the syllabi may play a role of support tools to the curriculum after being gradually adjusted to this purpose.

Finally, the BENC is to be revised after a period of three years. All criticisms and suggestions from teachers, schools, researchers, institutes of higher education, professional associations, etc. will be valuable tools in the revision process.

1.6.2. The Decree-law 6/2001

This decree (Abrantes, 2001) emphasizes the need for a reorganization of the basic school curriculum, aiming at reinforcing the link between the three *ciclos*. In this reorganization five major features were identified: (a) the inclusion of three new curriculum areas – assisted study, project area, and civic education; (b) the mandatory experimental teaching of sciences; (c) *a thorough examination of the teaching of modern languages*; (d) the development of arts education and education for citizenship; and (e) the consolidation of the core of the curriculum in the areas of the mother tongue and mathematics (11).

Furthermore, it establishes the guidelines of the basic education curriculum organization and management, namely the coherence and the sequence among the three *ciclos* and the connection between the *ciclos* and secondary school, and the integration of curriculum and evaluation. Then, it clarifies the evaluation procedures and the process of development of a national curriculum.

More specifically, Article 7 establishes three new measures in foreign language teaching:

- The 1st *ciclo* schools may, depending on available resources, offer the introduction to a foreign language, with emphasis on its oral skills⁴;
- The learning of a foreign language is compulsory in the 2nd *ciclo* and continues in the 3rd *ciclo*, so as to provide students with knowledge of the language with increasing fluency and adequacy;
- The learning of a second foreign language is mandatory in the 3rd *ciclo*.

This decree was implemented in the school year 2001/2002 in the 1st and 2nd *ciclos*, in 2002/2003 in Year 7, in 2003/2004 in Year 8 and in 2004/2005 in Year 9.

1.6.3. The Secondary School Educational Reform of 2002

⁴ The government elected in 2005 established that English is to be introduced in Year 3 of the 1st *ciclo*. However, because this measure was taken recently, no guidelines have been provided yet.

In November 2002, the Ministry of Education presented the Guidelines for the Secondary Education Reform with innovative measures and elements which framed the strategic objectives for secondary education. During a two-month period of public discussion, the Ministry of Education aimed at clarifying its policies, promoting debates and obtaining input, mainly through several meetings in all schools in the country. Almost 600 reports were gathered from different institutions involving teachers, researchers, professional associations, scientific societies, unions and business organizations. Finally, the final version of the Guidelines for the Curriculum Reorganization of Secondary Education (GCRSE) (2003c) was published in April 2003.

In this document, five key objectives were identified: to increase the quality of learning, to combat school failure and drop-out, to provide straightforward answers to the challenges of the information and knowledge society, to progressively articulate the educational and training policies, and to reinforce the schools' autonomy.

These objectives were based on the directives defined by the Council of Europe for the organization of a European educational and training sphere:

As a member state of the European Community and of the Council of Europe, Portugal respects and tries to follow the recommendations issued from both organizations as far as language education policies are concerned, based on the principle that linguistic and cultural diversity is an asset of the common heritage to be preserved.⁵

Aiming at the development of the European education systems, some basic principles were postulated by the Member States:

- to improve the quality and efficiency of the education and training systems, based on the requirements of the information society, guaranteeing the quality of teachers' training, providing access to information and communication, increasing the number of graduates in technical and scientific courses and facilitating the use of resources;
- to foster general access to education and training by making learning more appealing and allowing for some flexibility in the different education systems;

⁵ Curriculum areas – Foreign languages, Ministry of Education, Department of Secondary Education, http://www.des.min-edu.pt/area_ac/le_apres.shtml.

- to open the education and training systems to the outside world through reinforcing the links with the labour domains, the increase of mobility and *the learning of foreign languages*, among others.

The GCRSE proposes five different secondary level courses in the following areas⁶:

- (a) *scientific-humanistic education*: aimed at the progress of study to tertiary level courses (university or polytechnic)
- (b) *technological education*: aimed at the progress of study to tertiary level courses or post-secondary courses (technological specialization) as well as integration in the labour market, stressing the knowledge of new information technologies
- (c) *specialised artistic education*: aimed at the development of artistic activities, such as dance, music, theatre, audiovisual and visual arts
- (d) *professional education*: aimed at the development of skills to a successful labour market integration
- (e) *vocational training*: aimed at the development of the articulation between formal education and training in work context

Curricula organization of scientific-humanistic and technological courses:

Five *general education* subjects are common to scientific-humanistic and technological courses. These subjects are Portuguese (Years 10, 11 and 12), Philosophy (Years 10 and 11), Physical Education (Years 10, 11 and 12), Communication and Information Technologies (Year 10) and *Foreign Language I or II – one of the two languages studied in basic education (Years 10 and 11)*. It is stated that the aim of the subject Foreign Language is to provide the acquisition of skills of frequent language use in an interdependent world and in daily activities, namely in the European context.

Fundamentally, besides the five general education subjects, students in the scientific-humanistic courses will take four *specific education* subjects while students in the technological courses will take two *scientific education* subjects and four *technological*

⁶ Due to the characteristics of these courses, the GCRSE only provided detailed information on the scientific-humanistic and technological courses.

education subjects plus other components such as “project area”, “technological project” and a period of training (2003d).

Five courses in the scientific-humanistic area are proposed: Sciences and Technologies, Economics and Social Sciences, Humanities and Social Sciences, Languages and Literatures, and Visual Arts. In the technological area ten courses are identified: Civil Construction, Electricity and Electronics, Computer Science, Environment and Land Organization, Equipment Design, Multimedia, Marketing, Management, Social Services, and Sports.

It is important to note that although English (as one of the foreign languages taught⁷) is part of the general education component of scientific-humanistic courses in Years 10 and 11, there is a chance that it is also taught in Year 12 in the specific education component of the General Course in Languages and Literatures⁸ of the scientific-humanistic area.

These new guidelines are supposed to be implemented in the school year 2004/2005 (for Year 10), 2005/2006 (Year 11) and 2006/2007 (Year 12) (Table 1.3 shows the present structure of the Portuguese educational system).

⁷ The other languages are French, German and Spanish. “The Ministry of Education has no policies in favour of any language provided by the system. The decisive factors when students or families choose a language seem to be, on the one hand, tradition and cultural empathy (as is the case of French) and, on the other hand, the international context and the role the English language plays in the world today. Moreover, the ‘hegemony’ of English is pervasive in most European countries. The learning of German, practically available in secondary education only, is generally the choice of students who want to proceed with their studies in Modern Languages and Literatures. As the offer of Spanish is recent, its expansion is still limited due to the small number of human resources.” (Curriculum areas – Foreign languages, Ministry of Education, Department of Secondary Education, http://www.des.min-edu.pt/area_ac/le_apres.shtml)

⁸ It is also possible that it is taught in Years 11 and 12 if it is FL II or III, as one of the subjects to be chosen in the specific education component of the General Courses in Economics and Social Sciences and Humanities and Social Sciences, or in Years 10, 11 and 12 if it is FL II or III, as a subject to be taken in the specific education component of the General Course in Languages and Literatures. These scenarios are very unlikely to happen because the number of students who start learning English as the second foreign language in the 3rd *ciclo* (FL II) or the third foreign language in Secondary education (FL III) is extremely low. The vast majority of students choose English as their first foreign language (FL I) to be learned in the 2nd *ciclo*.

	Higher Education	Doutoramento (PhD)			
		Mestrado (Master's)			
		University Education: <i>Licenciatura</i> (4, 5 or 6 years)	Polytechnic Education		
			<i>Bacharelato</i> (6 semesters)	<i>Licenciatura</i> (8 semesters)	Two-Stage <i>Licenciatura</i> (<i>Bacharelato</i> , 6 sem. + <i>Licenciatura</i> , 2 to 4 sem.)
Year 12	Secondary Education	Scientific-humanistic Courses		Technological courses	
Year 11					
Year 10					
Year 9	Basic Education	3rd <i>ciclo</i>			
Year 8					
Year 7					
Year 6		2nd <i>ciclo</i>			
Year 5					
Year 4					
Year 3		1st <i>ciclo</i>			
Year 2					
Year 1					

Table 1.3: The Portuguese educational system

1.6.4. Tertiary education: universities and polytechnics

Generally speaking, the 1986 Comprehensive Law on the Education System (CLES) establishes the general framework for the entire Portuguese education system. In subsection III (70) the CLES identifies the fundamental characteristics of higher education such as scope, objectives, access, degrees and diplomas, among others. Article 11 (70-71) sets the scope (“Higher education includes university and polytechnic education”) and the objectives of higher education, such as:

- to stimulate cultural creativity and the development of a scientific spirit and reasoned thought;
- to promote the dissemination of cultural, scientific and technical knowledge (...);
- to foster a permanent desire for cultural and professional improvement and facilitate its attainment (...);
- to stimulate awareness of current world problems, particularly national and regional ones (...).

The same article also identifies specific objectives to university and polytechnic education. While university education is designed to ensure a sound scientific and cultural background and provide technical education equipping people for administering professional and cultural activities and furthering the development of comprehension, innovation and critical analysis, polytechnic education is designed to provide a sound higher level of cultural and technical education, develop a capacity for innovation and critical analysis and inculcate theoretical and practical scientific knowledge and its application to exercising professional activities.

Article 12 (72) establishes general access regulations by stating that each higher education establishment shall have powers to administer the process of assessing the applicant's capacity to follow the course, and that of selection and sorting of applicants for admission to each course and educational establishment.

One of the major differences between university and polytechnic education is in the degrees awarded in each institution. In university education the following academic degrees may be awarded: bachelor (*bacharel*), undergraduate (*licenciado*), master (*mestre*) and doctor (*doutor*) whereas in polytechnic education the academic degrees to be awarded are bachelor (*bacharel*) and undergraduate (*licenciado*) (73) (see Table 1.3).

Moreover, these two institutions differ in the types of establishments. While university education takes place in universities and non-integrated university schools, polytechnic education takes place in specialised higher education schools in the fields of technology, arts and education, among others (74).

Another distinction between university education and polytechnic education lies in the initial training of teachers of basic and secondary education provided. Teachers in the 1st, 2nd and 3rd *ciclos* of basic education are trained in teacher training schools and colleges in polytechnic institutions and in university establishments but secondary school teachers are trained in university establishments only (83-84).

1.6.4.1. ELT in universities and polytechnics

English can be taught in Portuguese universities and polytechnics in two ways. It can be offered as English for Specific Purposes/English for Academic Purposes courses to their Departments or Faculties such as Law, Medicine, Psychology, Computer Sciences or it can be found in language teacher training courses for basic and secondary schools. It is also possible that English is taught in Language and Literature degrees with no educational components. However, most of the students who enrol on these degrees choose to follow the teacher training programmes. Each university or polytechnic can decide on the curriculum to offer, i.e. how many years and how many hours a week English language will be offered, though the course structure has to be approved by the Ministry of Education. Accordingly, they can also determine the structure and programme of the course which is usually done by the lecturers involved under the coordination of a pedagogic and research supervisor. The Comprehensive Law on the Education System establishes in its Article 47, no. 6 (92), that higher education curricula are related to each of the teaching institutions which run the respective courses in accordance with national and regional needs and taking integrated planning of the respective network into consideration.

1.7. The structure of the thesis

The thesis is divided into four sections. Chapters 1, 2 and 3 set up a basic frame of reference: chapter 1 with an overview of the fundamental elements of EIL and ELT in Portugal; chapter 2 reviewing the available literature on the central concepts of this study; and chapter 3 examining the research methodologies available and the ones used in the research. Chapters 4, 5, 6 and 7 are the heart of the study. While chapter 4 examines data from documents (classroom materials and syllabi), chapters 5, 6 and 7 focus on the practice of EIL in Portugal through the investigation of students' and teachers' attitudes toward the linguistic dimensions of EIL (chapter 5), the cultural dimensions of EIL (chapter 6) and issues of language affiliation (chapter 7). Finally, chapter 8 offers an overall discussion and conclusions and implications based on the research data produced.

1.8. Summary of chapter

This chapter attempted to introduce in brief the aims, scope and significance of the study. Then, it developed two core concepts of the research. First, it offered an overview of the function of English in the 21st century as a language of international communication, making references to some models of describing the global spread of English. Second, it provided a concise account of the history of ELT in Portugal followed by an introduction to the present Portuguese educational system including basic, secondary and tertiary levels. On the whole, it tried to present the foundations of the study which revolve around the use of English as an international language in Portugal. The following chapter, though, will explore and clarify the issues introduced in Chapter 1.

Chapter 2: Literature review

2.1. Introduction

This chapter aims first, to identify the basic components of EIL which are relevant to a context of English as a foreign language and second, at establishing the basis of the research. Firstly, it will try to present some definitions of EIL based on its linguistic features and as a tool for cross-cultural communication. Within the analysis of cross-cultural communication, it will examine the concept of intelligibility. Then, it will consider a definition of EIL as a (prospective) language variety. Next, it will point out the changing roles of native and non-native speakers and the issue of language ownership as English becomes an international language. It will then present some criticisms of EIL which attempted to analyse the spread of English internationally and its socio-political and educational contexts. Afterwards, it will refer to ELT practices which consider English as an international language, building a basic framework for teaching EIL based on changes to be introduced in ELT. Within the scope of teaching English as an international language, the value of native and non-native teachers and the motivational factors of English learners will be further analysed. Finally, it will set up the framework and directions of this research through the approach of EIL as a new set of attitudes.

It is hoped that when these sections are put together, they may provide useful guidelines on the analysis of English as an international language from the perspective of an Expanding Circle community.

2.2. International Standard English

Over the past years, instead of adopting a monolithic approach to English, linguists have been proposing that there is a range of ‘Englishes’ – British English, American English, Canadian English, Irish English, Malaysian English, Zimbabwean English, among others – distinct from each other and possessing their own sub-varieties. However, these same linguists observe that due to these many different Englishes, another variety of the language, often referred to as International/World Standard English, or just

International/World English, becomes necessary so that those who speak English(es) can communicate with one another.

McArthur (2001:15) synthesises the current tension in world English when he states that “there are many and there is one (but in two principal parts). Although the many seek greater self-definition and acknowledgement at home and abroad, the one – an evolving World Standard English – remains a reality and a target”. He adds that “A federation of standards seems therefore already to be with us, constituting, as it were, an evolving ‘super-standard’ increasingly comfortable with territorial and linguistic diversity”. Furthermore, he seeks to define World Standard English as a subset of world English, “drawn from all the Englishes, however prestigious it might be and whatever relations with the communities and community standards that it pulls together. It will be the norm and level to which millions will aspire for themselves and/or for their children”.

McArthur (1998) also believes that standard and standardising varieties such as British English, American English, Australian English, Canadian English, New Zealand English and South African English, have already begun to form this international standard of English, what he calls ‘a federation of unequals’ (2001:10). He states that “the various national standards and near-standards merge into a broad ‘World Standard’, which is of necessity somewhat flexible and accommodating” (1993:340-341). Nonetheless, it has so far received and mixed elements from the British and American standards. Such influence from both AmE and BrE is more clearly felt in the international print standard for English. In terms of written English on a world scale, there has been, and probably will continue to exist, a dual standard – UK and US (2001).

However, while there is consensus and conformity towards a written standard in terms of grammar, syntax, lexis, etc., with forms from both AmE and BrE, spoken English has become more altered. In its spoken form, it is called ‘World Standard Spoken English’ (WSSE). One of the ways of using WSSE is by “consciously avoiding a word or phrase which you know is not going to be understood outside your own country, and of finding an alternative form of expression” (Crystal, 1997:137). Generally speaking, WSSE has “a tendency to eradicate idiosyncrasy and to opt for the most widely understood features of language” (Crystal, 1988:265). Crystal adds that the development of WSSE will

probably depend a lot on American English rather than British English, though second language varieties may eventually play a crucial role in the future (Crystal, 1997).

Alternatively, Modiano (1999b) suggests a definition of an international standard English based on the linguistic competence of the speakers. International Standard English would then be a blend of language features that are shared by proficient speakers of the language. Moreover, it is not based on a prescriptive model owned by speakers of a prestige variety but it should follow a descriptive approach. Any definition of international standard English has to consider its global functions and the forms of the language used by most of its speakers, native or non-native. In sum, international standard English should be based on the communicative usefulness of the language, not on political or geographical issues. Any feature of English – phonological, lexical, or grammatical – which is meaningless to most speakers should not be considered standard.

Modiano seems to agree with Crystal's interpretation of the use of WSSE in terms of which words and phrases should or should not be used in international communication. Consequently, there may be some characteristics of AmE or BrE which are not used or recognised by the majority of people who use the language all over the world. In this case, such characteristics are not part of an international standard English.

2.2.1. American English and British English

The influence of the American and British standards in both written and spoken forms of international English may be felt in all spheres of language use on a global scale. Countries in the Outer Circle may have adopted a standardization process but in their struggle to identify and establish the features of their local variety of English, they still have to deal with the influence of AmE and BrE. However, the English taught and used in the countries of the Expanding Circle is definitely based on the norms provided by these two varieties.

Modiano (1999a, 2000) believes that the user of EIL should be able to understand the differences between AmE and BrE in order to use the language more effectively.

Moreover, Modiano (1999a) is convinced that mixing varieties (AmE and BrE) is not only acceptable but also expected when English is used internationally:

There is nothing in the ideology of EIL which insists that consistency in a major variety of English eases communication in an international context. On the contrary, an important tenet of EIL is that a good communicator strives to use features of the language which are most easily understood by the interlocutor, and if this means that one mixes features of various varieties, this is not necessarily a bad thing. (27)

Virtanen & Lindgrén (1998) investigated Finnish and Swedish university students' perceptions about and use of BrE and AmE in writing through questionnaires and argumentative essays and found that only one third of the students accepted mixing the two varieties. For the two thirds who preferred being consistent in one variety, BrE would be the chosen variety. Moreover, they indicated that keeping the two varieties separate is important to avoid misunderstandings, because the reader might find mixtures confusing or because it is important to signal a cultural context in the text. On the other hand, students who accepted mixing varieties would do so as long as the text communicated or because it is difficult for non-native and native speakers of English to keep the two varieties apart. The study also found out that students do not mix the two varieties when writing. Most essays that contained spelling or vocabulary marked either as BrE or AmE did not contain mixed features and when students made a choice, the majority favoured BrE spelling and vocabulary.

Although Virtanen & Lindgrén only investigated the students' opinion and use of written features of BrE and AmE, the students' preference for consistency and for BrE as the preferred variety may be quite illustrative of what happens in other ELT contexts, not only in Europe but also in most countries in the Outer and Expanding Circles. No investigation into the learning and use of English would be complete without contemplating the language user's attitudes toward separating or mixing AmE and BrE.

Furthermore, three other areas of investigation related to English varieties should be carefully analysed, especially in the countries of the Expanding Circle. First, it is important to recognize how much both varieties influence the local use of English. Second, it is also vital to see if other native varieties co-exist with AmE and BrE. Finally, it would also be important to see if non-native varieties are also found. After

all, as McArthur pointed out, there is ‘one’ (“in two principal parts” – AmE and BrE) and there are ‘many’ Englishes in this world ‘federation of standards’.

Nonetheless, several linguists have observed that no definition of international English would be complete without taking into account a more sociological approach. For them, what characterizes English as an international language is precisely its widespread use all over the world as a tool for cross-cultural communication.

2.3. EIL as cross-cultural communication

English as an international language can be defined as the language used by native and non-native speakers for communication in international interactions – business, ads, sports, news, travel, diplomacy, entertainment. In other words, EIL aims at mutual intelligibility and appropriate language use involving nationals of different countries – non-native speakers interacting with native speakers, non-native speakers interacting with other non-native speakers, and native speakers interacting with native speakers. Essentially, the concept of EIL focuses on cross-cultural, cross-linguistic interactions (Campbell et al., 1983).

Though using the term English as a global language (EGL), Gnutzmann (1999) provides a definition based on the situations of language use, which can be applied to the concept of international English. For him, EGL means “English used as a medium of communication in all sorts of communication contexts and for many different purposes for instance, in written academic discourse or by a Frenchman talking to a Greek waiter ordering a pizza in an Italian restaurant in Norway” (158). Gnutzmann states that intercultural⁹ competence refers to and implies (166):

- awareness of the culture-specific dependency of thought and behaviour;
- knowledge of general parameters according to which cultures can be distinguished (e.g. religion, role of the sexes);

⁹ The terms ‘intercultural’ and ‘cross-cultural’ will be used in this study with similar meanings. According to Kramsch (1998), ‘intercultural’ refers to the meeting and communication between people from different cultures and languages. Likewise, Richards et al. (1992) define ‘cross-cultural communication’ as an exchange of information between persons from different cultural backgrounds.

- rejection of ethnocentrism: one's own system of cultural norms is not considered appropriate to be applied to the evaluation of other cultures;
- interpersonal sensitivity: the ability to understand a person in their own right;
- cognitive flexibility: openness to new ideas and beliefs;
- behavioural flexibility: the ability to change one's behaviour patterns.

One of the major concerns in the discussion of cross-cultural communication is the idea of adaptation. Baxter (1991:67) states that “communicating internationally means actively seeking a common ground, and this entails *adapting* one's way of speaking English”. He adds that “adaptation is not an easy process, requiring in the speaker a variety of communicative skills and an awareness of what is entailed in cross-cultural communication”.

However, Smith (1987) remarks that using English in cross-cultural contexts “does not change the interactor's cultural assumptions and expectations about what is and is not appropriate language behaviour in particular situations” (3). As a result, Smith proposes that a negotiation of meaning should be done when involving the following senses:

- (1) *a sense of self*: factors such as race, gender, nationality, age, socioeconomic status, belief system and values, ethnic/religious/political background, etc. help define one's identity which is not changed when one is using English (discourse patterns from the first language do not carry over entirely into the second language);
- (2) *a sense of the other*: in the use of English, one needs to know something about the discourse strategies of the prospective other (using a common linguistic medium – English – does not mean that the discourse strategies are shared);
- (3) *a sense of the relationship between the self and the other*: the degree or affiliation of distance between sender and receiver;
- (4) *a sense of the setting/social situation*: English is used differently in London, Los Angeles, Manila, Melbourne, Tokyo or Toronto so the geographic setting and the social situation should be taken into account;
- (5) *a sense of the goal or objective*: having a clear understanding of the goal/objective is essential if we are to negotiate meaning successfully across cultures.

Smith (1992) has also called attention to the importance of maintaining intelligibility when using English for cross-cultural communication. However, he believes that “it is unnecessary for every user of English to be intelligible to every other user of English. Our speech/writing in English needs to be intelligible only to those with whom we wish to communicate in English” (75). The problem with this point of view is that as English becomes the world’s lingua franca, it is likely that it will be used in a variety of contexts involving speakers of different first languages. Jenkins (2000) has extensively developed the issue of the intelligibility of English when it is used in communicative exchanges among native and non-native speakers and has proposed that it is possible to approach EIL as a set of phonological features.

The issue of intelligibility becomes more relevant if one considers the possibility that users of different English varieties – native and non-native – could become unintelligible to one another. Smith (1983:49) states that “it is often maintained that the educated native speaker is more likely to be intelligible to others than the educated non-native speaker”. Some people claim that the model for production should be an English native variety. This choice of model of a standard variety is required because “the use of other models will lead to such a great diversity of non-native varieties of educated English that soon persons speaking English may not be intelligible to their listeners”. However, later on Smith (1992) declares that “native speakers are not the sole judges of what is intelligible, nor are they always more intelligible than non-native speakers” (76). Smith suggests that intelligibility may seem to depend on the familiarity a speaker has with a variety or accent of English: the greater the familiarity, the more likely the user – native and non-native – will understand, and be understood by, speakers of that variety. In sum, there would be no judges of what is intelligible as what is intelligible to some speakers might not be to others.

One way of perceiving the language user’s familiarity with varieties and accents of English might be through the user’s knowledge and ability to identify the speaker’s place of origin. Smith (1992) conducted a study on the ability of native and non-native subjects to guess the country of origin of speakers of native and non-native varieties of English (China, India, Indonesia, Japan, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines, Taiwan, the United Kingdom, and the United States) The subjects in the study belonged to three different groups: non-native speakers (from Japan), native speakers (from the US), and a

mixed group with non-native and native speakers. Smith found out that the native speaker group was not able to identify correctly their fellow American as well as the non-native subject group or the mixed subject group did. Also, the American speaker was recognized by a higher percentage of subjects than the British speaker, which can be explained by the fact that the study was conducted at the University of Hawaii. Results showed that 90% of the non-native speaker group were able to identify the speakers of their own variety (Japanese). However, Smith did not try to explain these results, for instance, why few subjects were able to identify the speakers from Indonesia even though this country was actually mentioned on the tape. Smith did not provide any possible justification for the higher percentages of correct guesses in the mixed group, followed by the native speaker group and then the non-native speakers.

Any analysis of the cross-cultural use of the English language should consider in the first place, the issue of intelligibility of native and non-native varieties and accents and, subsequently, the user's familiarity with and identification of the speaker's origin and variety.

Besides such attempts to define and understand EIL based on the kind of participants and the contexts of communicative exchange, some applied linguists have tried to identify EIL as a prospective language variety. The following section will introduce some of the fundamental concepts related to this issue.

2.4. EIL as a language variety

Jenkins (2000) calls attention to the fact that most interactions in English today are among non-native speakers and because of this, native accents such as RP or GA should not be considered the norms for 'correct' pronunciation. Instead, we should focus on the features of pronunciation which are crucial to ensure intelligibility among speakers of EIL. Fundamentally, she tries to identify what could be considered a phonological inventory of EIL. In view of this, Jenkins establishes a phonological core of intelligibility, the 'Lingua Franca Core' (LFC), "a set of unifying features which, at the very least, has the potential to guarantee that pronunciation will not impede successful communication in EIL settings" (95). Some of the core features, i.e. the features that lead to intelligible pronunciation, are most consonant sounds (except for *th*, voiced /θ/

and voiceless /ð/, and dark *l*, as in *hotel*); vowel length contrast (short/long, *live/leave*); and nuclear/tonic stress (Where are YOU from?). In contrast, some of the features which do not seem to cause miscommunication, the non-core features, are word stress, rhythm and pitch movement (rising and falling tones), and exact quality of vowel sounds.

Prodromou (2003) has also approached English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) as a set of distinctive features when he tried to establish differences between native speakers' and non-native speakers' use of idioms. At the same time he identifies the role and relevance of 'idiomaticity', i.e. idioms and collocation, in English as a native language, Prodromou observes that (1) idioms are difficult for the non-native speaker; (2) when non-natives are able to use idioms they sound unnatural; and (3) non-native speakers seem to avoid using idioms. Consequently, he states that a selection of idioms must be made when drawing up syllabuses or textbooks for ELF. However, unlike Jenkins, Prodromou does not provide an 'Idiomatic Common Core' – as the subtitle of the article might suggest. Instead, he basically suggests "to abandon the teaching of colourful idioms" (proverbs and sayings) and "to develop an Idiomatic Common Core of useful but also acquirable collocations and idioms, based on an analysis of actual language use by successful users of ELF" (29).

On a similar line of thought, Modiano (1999b) admits that global English can have a definitive linguistic form: "Increasing our knowledge of what features of language are regionally restricted and which are commonly understood in the international context will assist the foreign/second language speaker in their efforts to communicate cross-culturally" (11). According to Modiano, these features make up the core of EIL and only through academic research may such features be identified.

However, Baxter (1991) states that "‘What is international English?’ is an incorrectly formulated question that can lead one to looking for some form of English. The correct question is, ‘How does one speak English internationally?’" (66) In other words, instead of looking for a new *form* of the language, one should focus on its *functions*.

Gnutzmann (1999) seems to agree with Baxter when he points out that due to its many uses and linguistic variability, EGL has no distinct phonological inventory, no specific

lexis and no specific grammar, therefore, it is not a linguistic variety of English. Fundamentally, EGL “is not particularly a formal-linguistic phenomenon, it instead refers to contexts of use definable by extralinguistic factors such as the relationship between speaker and hearer, the time and place of communication, the purpose and topic of communication, etc.” (158).

Although Jenkins’ work has occupied a central role in the EIL debate, approaching today’s role of English as a language of international communication through the phonological features of communicative exchanges among native and non-native speakers may seem quite limited in scope. In spite of such attempts to describe some linguistic features of EIL, Crystal (1994) believes that so far there is not a world standard English, “a totally uniform, regionally neutral, and unarguably prestigious variety” (113). In the absence of a systematised grammar of international English, Medgyes (1999a) proposes “that International English be regarded merely as an idealisation, an amalgam of beliefs and assumptions about rules and norms to which certain people adhere with varying degrees of success” (185).

Remarkably, one of the areas in which people’s beliefs and attitudes have been changing is related to the roles of native and non-native speakers as English increases its influence in the international context.

2.5. EIL and the nativeness paradigm

Several linguists have attempted to identify what distinguishes a native from a non-native speaker. Davies (1991, 2003) tries to expose the complexities of such a task by examining the identity of the native speaker. In his view, the native speaker can be characterised in the following ways (2003: 210-211): the native speaker acquires the L1 of which he/she is native speaker in childhood; the native speaker has intuitions (in terms of acceptability and productiveness) about his/her Grammar 1 [the language the speaker constructs: idiolectal grammar] and those features of the Grammar 2 [the standard language: group language grammar] which are distinct from his/her Grammar 1; the native speaker has a unique capacity to produce fluent spontaneous discourse, to write creatively and to interpret and translate into the L1 of which he/she is a native speaker.

Likewise, Davies identifies the six criteria by which the L2 learner might become a native speaker of the target-language (211): (1) childhood acquisition; (2) intuitions about idiolectal grammar (Grammar 1); (3) intuitions about group language grammar (Grammar 2); (4) discourse and pragmatic control; (5) creative performance; (6) interpreting and translating.

However, Davies comments that only the first cannot be achieved by the L2 learner. This makes him conclude that “it is difficult for an adult non-native speaker to become a native speaker of a second language precisely because I define a native speaker as a person who has early acquired the language”. However, Davies believes that the non-native speaker can acquire “communicative competence of the native speaker (and) the confidence necessary to membership” (213). In other words, for Davies what distinguishes a native speaker from a non-native speaker is a matter of confidence and identity.

Similarly, Medgyes (1992) states that “those who use English as their first language have an advantage over those for whom it is a foreign language” (342). Medgyes adds that non-natives cannot become native speakers because they are norm-dependent, in other words, their English “is but an imitation of some form of native use” (343).

It is evident that both Davies and Medgyes consider that there is an implicit aim of non-native speakers to ‘become’ native speakers, at least in linguistic terms. In their analysis of the roles of native and non-native speakers, Medgyes and Davies do not consider that non-native speakers might not want to conform to native speaker norms. This belief seems to be quite strong in the nativeness paradigm debate, as Cook (1999) aptly states that “an objection that is sometimes raised to the argument against the native speaker model is that it is the L2 users themselves who want to be native speakers” (196).

Davies also claims that the status of native speakers is acquired not through linguistic principles but rather for social and political reasons. Brutt-Griffler and Samimy (2001) arrive at the same conclusion after analysing the identity formation of four speakers of international English. Their study indicates that nativeness constitutes a non-elective socially constructed identity rather than a linguistic category. Their subjects were born

outside the mother tongue community and constructed their identities as users of English based on cultural assumptions such as what a native or non-native speaker should look like or sound like.

Some other studies focus on the roles of native and non-native speakers in educational contexts. However, Cook (1999) draws attention to the fact that “overt discussion of the native speaker as a model is rare in language teaching” (188). He stresses that the discussion is focused on the kind of native speaker used as a model in language teaching not on whether to use them as models at all. Put simply, the native speaker has been and continues to be the point of reference in ELT. Cook adds that whenever second language learners produce “grammar that differs from native speakers’, pronunciation that betrays where L2 users come from, and vocabulary that differs from native usage”, these “are treated as signs of L2 users’ failure to become native speakers” (194-195).

Rampton (1990) offers a fundamental analysis of the concept of native speaker when regarding English as an international language. For Rampton, it is vital to separate the biological and social levels as well as the idea of language as an instrument of communication and as a symbol of social identification. In essence, this distinction identifies, on the one hand, English as the cultural expression of a society and, on the other hand, English as the language of international communication. Based on this, Rampton proposes new terms to be used: *language expertise*, *language inheritance* and *language affiliation*.

The term *language expert* should be used instead of native speaker when the communicative aspects of language are considered: “When educationalists have the communicative aspects of language in mind, they should speak of accomplished users as *expert* rather than as *native speakers*” (98). For Rampton, the notion of expertise is fairer to learners and teachers because it “shifts the emphasis from ‘who you are’ to ‘what you know’” (99). The term *affiliation* “refers to a connection between people and groups that are considered to be separate or different, whereas *inheritance* is concerned with the continuity between people and groups who are felt to be closely linked” (99). Moreover, while the term *inheritance* carries “a sense of the permanent, ancient, or historic”, the term *affiliation* involves a sense of attachment (100).

Basically, the concepts *expertise*, *inheritance*, and *affiliation* “tell us to inspect each native speaker’s credentials closely, and they insist that we do not assume that nationality and ethnicity are the same as language ability and language allegiance” (100).

Graddol (1999) examines the changing role of the native speaker from three perspectives: a demographic argument, the status of English as an international language, and the ideological discourse about languages, linguistic competence, and identity. Graddol remarks that the decline of the native speaker can be related to “changing ideas about the centrality of the native speaker to norms of usage” (67). In countries where English is used as a second or foreign language, the role of the native speaker is being challenged. The emergence of ‘New Englishes’ has shifted the focus on AmE and BrE as norm providers. According to Graddol, the increasing number of learners of English as a foreign language in the 21st century will need teachers, dictionaries and grammar books, but “will they continue to look towards the native speaker for authoritative norms of usage?” (68)

Smith (1983b) draws attention to the fact that when considering EIL, as far as native speakers are concerned, there is more than just being aware and tolerant toward different pronunciations. Consequently, Smith identifies some of the changes native speakers should go through. First of all, native speakers should know how other people – native and non-native speakers – structure information and argument when using English. Second, they should sharpen their perceptions of what may go wrong in an intercultural communication. Also, they should be sensitised to the probability of misunderstanding and be prepared to deal with it. However, it is important to note that such changes are expected to occur when a native speaker is talking to a non-native as well as a native speaker of another national variety. Though the phonological differences may be minimal, cultural differences may lead to miscommunication.

When discussing the changing attitudes toward native and non-native speakers as English becomes an international language, another issue that is hotly debated has to do with ownership of the language.

2.5.1. Ownership of English

Commenting the articles on a special issue of TESOL Quarterly, Norton (1997) addresses the theme of ownership of English as an international language. Norton suggests that, implicitly or explicitly, those articles raise questions about whether English belongs to its native speakers, to speakers of standard English, to White people, or to all of those who speak it, irrespective of their linguistic and sociocultural histories. However, rather than providing an answer to this question, Norton builds it through the reflection of four themes raised in the contributions to that issue of the journal: (1) the relationship between native and non-native ESL teachers; (2) the categorization of ESL learners; (3) the relationship between standard and non-standard speakers of English; and (4) the perpetration of Western cultural hegemony by TESOL educators. Although these issues can certainly contribute to the argument of language ownership, the absence of a straightforward answer to the question ‘who owns English internationally?’ shows how intricate and controversial this issue is.

In spite of that, Widdowson (1994) attempted to provide a clear analysis of how the concept of language ownership can be approached. Widdowson suggests that the general assumption in ELT is that the English language belongs to the English, the speakers of proper and genuine English and those who control the language. Such an idea, he claims, is linked to an attitude of preservation of the language. Moreover, this preservation presupposes the authority of native speakers of Standard English. However, Widdowson stresses that Standard English serves the purpose of “a particular community, expressive of its identity, its conventions, and values” (381). In other words, it serves the communal or cultural purposes rather than the communicative functions of its community. But Widdowson recognizes that Standard English is an international language, no longer property of England or any other Inner Circle country: “It serves a whole range of different communities and their institutional purposes and these transcend traditional communal and cultural boundaries” (382). In a sense, these communities, as language creators, are owners of the language.

However, it is evident, not only in Widdowson’s article but in the overall debate of language ownership, that little is referred to the use of English in the Expanding Circle. Most arguments take into consideration the ‘New Englishes’ and their speakers as opposed to native speakers in the Inner Circle. But what about users of English as a

foreign language? Are they or can they be owners of the English they use? Or will they always be using the language of others? It is only through the view of English as an international language of communication that all users can claim ownership of the language.

While the notion that English has become an international language is consensual, the same cannot be said of the social and educational consequences of the penetration of English all over the world. Writers such as Phillipson, Canagarajah, Brutt-Griffler and Pennycook have attempted to look more critically the socio-political context of ELT and the spread of English as the world's most powerful language.

2.6. Criticisms of EIL

Phillipson (1992a) has claimed that the major English-speaking countries, the ELT industry and the British Council have advocated policies of linguistic promotion. He relates such policies with a type of discrimination he calls *linguicism*: “ideologies, structures, and practice which are used to legitimate, effectuate, and reproduce an unequal division of power and resources (...) between groups which are defined on the basis of language” (47). According to Phillipson, individuals and institutions in the ‘white’ English-speaking countries have tolerated and sometimes even encouraged the spread of English.

Phillipson also argues that ELT has led to the domination of local communities by ideologies from the ‘centre’, i.e. cultural agencies, teacher-training institutes and professional organizations from the US and the UK, thus increasing the economic and political dominance of Western institutions in developing countries (the ‘periphery’). English is seen as involved in the dominance of the English-speaking countries over non-English-speaking developing countries. Phillipson regards linguicism as producing inequalities: “the dominance of English is asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages” (47).

However, Phillipson's emphasis on the activities of the British Council and other British cultural agencies somehow neglects the important role of the US in the promotion of the

English language in a number of countries today. The influence of the American culture all over the world cannot be left out of any critical approach to the global penetration of English.

Another issue that Phillipson fails to address is how linguistic hegemony is experienced in the daily lives of the people in the periphery countries. Undoubtedly, the voices of people in developing countries can help provide a clearer picture of how linguistic imperialism is realized. Moreover, it would also be important to analyze what could be considered by many a strong form of imperialism which can be found in the Expanding Circle, namely the cultural influence of English-speaking communities through the media and entertainment industries.

Moreover, many people would argue that linguistic and attitudinal resistance to English is somehow taking place in the lives of people in the periphery. Brutt-Griffler (2002) revisits the concept of linguistic imperialism by stressing the role of language users in the spread of English: “English owes its existence as a world language in large part to the struggle against imperialism, and not to imperialism alone (...) World English is not simply made *through* speakers of other languages but *by* them” (ix).

Indigenized forms of English in literature and in vernacular contexts have been challenging the ideologies that underlie the dominance of English. Some even may say that the ESL classroom is a place of resistance in itself. More and more textbooks and pedagogies from the centre are being used in the ESL classrooms at the same time being influenced and modified by the students’ educational and social distinctive characteristics.

In view of this, Canagarajah (1999) investigates the strategies used by students and teachers in the periphery in the context of classroom interactions aiming at presenting arguments for a critical pedagogy in ELT by exposing its political intricacies. Presenting a thorough case study of ELT in Sri Lanka, Canagarajah identifies classroom dynamics which both resist and transform English-language learning. The author sets forth a pedagogical framework through the concepts of resistance, transformation, and appropriation, to suggest that classrooms in the periphery may offer alternatives to mainstream/centre pedagogies.

Essentially, Canagarajah argues that pedagogies from the US and UK are inadequate for periphery communities, that critical consciousness is developed by resistance to mainstream pedagogies and finally, that teachers and students should appropriate the English language to suit their local needs.

However, a central problem in Canagarajah's and Phillipson's works is how they have proposed the division of English-using countries into centre and periphery. It seems that this division overlooks the complexity of countries in Kachru's Outer and Expanding Circles. Rather than considering only English-speaking countries as the centre communities, Phillipson (1992a) includes Scandinavia in this group in spite of the significant linguistic and sociocultural differences between, for instance, Norway and the UK. Moreover, Canagarajah does not acknowledge the differences in terms of the functions and contexts of English use among countries in the periphery, such as India and Korea. Finally, more attention should be given to countries in the Expanding Circle where English is learned/used as a foreign language.

Pennycook (1998) examines the relationships between colonialism and ELT "to show how language policies and practices developed in different colonial contexts, and to demonstrate how the discourses of colonialism still adhere to English" (2). For Pennycook, the development of ELT can only be fully grasped by uncovering its colonial heritage: "There are deep and indissoluble links between the practices, theories and contexts of ELT and the history of colonialism" (19). Moreover, it is crucial to identify how language policies and ELT were part of the establishment of colonialism through the production of colonial discourses. According to Pennycook, "some of the central ideologies of current ELT have their origins in the cultural constructions of colonialism" (22).

Pennycook (1994) criticizes the view maintained by both liberals and conservatives that the promotion of English as an international language is an expected result of globalization, at the same time claiming that English has thus acquired a neutral status. In Pennycook's opinion, such a view does not take into account the role of language in an overall process of domination. Pennycook analyses the discourse of ELT in Singapore and Malaysia, describing how English is used in such contexts playing the

role of 'distributor of inequality' (255). The author states that in order to resist this dominant discourse of EIL in the classroom, teachers need to develop a critical pedagogy for teaching English as a world language by criticizing "the dominant ways of thinking about the English language teaching" and attempting "to think about the cultural and political implications of the spread of English" (6).

However, like Canagarajah, Pennycook tries to analyse ELT and colonialism historically and critically but again the focus is on countries in the Outer Circle. To put it in a nutshell, the critical voices of EIL have failed to examine the complexity and diversity of the roles of the English language in the countries in the Expanding Circle.

In the preface to her book, Brutt-Griffler (2002) seems to draw attention to an inclusive view of World English when she states that "the conception developed in this book provides an historical and linguistic justification for first, second and foreign language users of English to claim their rightful place in the creation of the multicultural identity of English" (ix). However, the book focuses on the study of language spread and change and language policies in the former British Asian and African colonies in the 19th and 20th centuries.

In Brutt-Griffler's explanatory framework for World English, the emphasis is on the New Englishes of the Outer Circle. The Expanding Circle, the EFL countries, is analysed to some extent when she characterizes the two types of bilingual speech communities (Type A and Type B). The example provided for a 'Type B' bilingual community – when the speech community shares both L1 and L2 – is a country of the Expanding Circle (Japan). However, Brutt-Griffler explains that the process that characterizes 'Type B' communities, that of a "transformation of a monolingual mother tongue speech community (or a section thereof) into a bilingual speech community" (139), "has taken place, for example, with respect to incipient speech communities in Japan, Mexico, and Jordan" (139).

Apparently, Brutt-Griffler does not consider the whole community but "bilingual speech communities within them" (147). Instead of referring to the use of English in the Expanding Circle, the author is identifying specific groups of people which seem to use English in similar ways as those found in countries of the Outer Circle.

Another example of a ‘Type B’ speech community provided by Brutt-Griffler is the “Spanish/English community comprised of Hispanic Americans in California, Texas, and Florida” (146) as they share both first and second languages. Fundamentally, the idea of ‘bilingualism’ found in Brutt-Griffler’s Type B speech communities does not seem to conform to the complexities of language use in the Expanding Circle.

Based on Phillipson’s, Canagarajah’s, Pennycook’s and Brutt-Griffler’s works, more research is needed in a number of issues which seem to be relevant in the Expanding Circle. First, the influence of British and American institutions such as the British Council and the United States Information Services. Second, the educational system in these countries should be examined through three major aspects: (a) the penetration of British and American textbooks versus the use of locally published materials; (b) the English language syllabi in basic and secondary schools proposed by the Ministry of Education; and (c) classroom practices and the attitudes of teachers and students toward the English language. Finally, the concepts of linguisticism and competition among English and local languages should be re-examined taking into consideration the importance of the instrumental use of English in countries of the Expanding Circle.

Essentially, the present study attempts to fill some of these gaps. Although several studies have been dealing with some of the above mentioned issues (see sections 1.2 and 2.8), it is hoped that the analysis of English learning and use in Portugal might help provide a critical look at the consequences of the international penetration of the English language.

Modiano (2001a) seems to agree with Canagarajah and Pennycook when he asserts that “there is convincing evidence, however, that foreign language learning can have potentially adverse effects on the cultures and languages of the learner. For this reason, there is a need to gain a better understanding of those aspects of the ELT practitioner’s behaviour which can be perceived as furthering the forces of linguistic imperialism” (339). In Modiano’s view, it is only through using ELT practices based on the perception of English as an international language that teachers and students can “come to terms with the cultural imposition of English language learning” (339). The following

section will examine some central issues of EIL which are directly associated with the pedagogical practices of students and teachers.

2.7. Teaching English as an International Language

Modiano (2001a) identifies two major areas in the teaching of English as an international language (TEIL) and their scope: language varieties and culture. Modiano believes that when teachers only emphasize AmE or BrE, students tend to perceive other varieties as less valued. Such approach to teaching “presents English as the property of a specified faction of the native-speaker contingency” (340). Modiano (2001b) also stresses that when students need to learn English as a tool for intercultural communication seeking competence in an international perspective on the language, they are supposed “to develop the ability to comprehend a wide range of varieties but also strive to utilize language which has a high likelihood of being comprehensible among a broad cross-section of the peoples who comprise the English-using world” (162). In Modiano’s opinion, teaching and learning English based on an international frame of reference aiming at developing such competence is superior “when compared to the conventional integration-orientated practices associated with the learning of culture-specific varieties such as British English” (162), what he calls a ‘nation-state centred view’ (2001a:340). In other words, teaching EIL means not only stressing both AmE and BrE but also including other native and non-native varieties.

As far as teaching culture is concerned, Seidlhofer (1999) calls attention to the current situation in ELT: “Most practical matters which impinge directly on teachers’ daily practice, such as textbooks, reference works, supplementary materials, examinations and qualifications still make almost exclusive reference to notions of the native speaker culture as the (uncontaminated?) source providing the language to be taught” (234).

In view of this, Modiano (2001b) states that EFL students hardly need to be aware of culture-specific language and that practitioners who support this kind of teaching are in fact pursuing a political agenda. Modiano underlines the role of culture in teaching English as an international language when he states that:

...with English, because it has lingua franca status, because there are a number of nation-states which have large populations speaking the tongue, and because the cross-cultural dimension of English among foreign-language speakers can effectively exclude the native speaker as well as the cultural distinctiveness which the native speaker represents, it is illogical to talk of the learning of English as a foreign language as an activity which is enriched through interjecting a cultural studies dimension defined as the history, society, culture, and institutions of the British. The cultural framework for English is global and as such is no longer situated in the legacy of one distinct culture. (161-162)

In order to promote cultural equality, “a multiplicity of teaching practices, and a view of the language as belonging to a broad range of peoples and cultures, is the best that language instructors can do” (2001a:340). Modiano maintains that “the ideologies which underpin globalization and the vision of cultural pluralism are more in tune with a lingua franca perspective as opposed to ELT platforms based on culture-specific varieties” (2001b:159). In other words, EIL can ‘neutralize’ the negative impact that the spread of the language can have on the learner’s culture. Although Modiano can sometimes sound quite provocative, it is undeniable that he tries to tackle the essential issues related to learning and teaching EIL.

As early as the 1980s, some linguists attempted to establish a framework for teaching English as an international language. In order to identify the major features of EIL, Campbell et al. (1983) introduced three principles of teaching EIL: (1) knowledge of the different social and cultural patterns and rules present in communicative exchanges involving speakers of more than one country or culture; (2) training native speakers in the use of English in international contexts; and (3) training non-native speakers in the use of language with native as well as with non-native speakers.

Several other authors have reported on significant changes to be introduced in teaching the language. If we are to accept English as an international language of communication and incorporate these characteristics into the classroom, educators in the field of English language teaching will have to take on some responsibilities. Trifonovitch (1981) points out some aspects that need to be emphasised in the classroom. First, as speakers of English will be contacting a variety of cultures – native and non-native – teachers should not concentrate on the cultures of the native speakers. Second, it is important that the learners of EIL understand their own culture and develop an awareness toward accepting other cultures in order to understand the other’s point of view. Also, the EIL learner should listen to as many varieties of English as possible. Finally, he/she should

be able to notice and accept different styles of spoken and written English, because they exhibit the cultural background of the speaker/writer.

More recently, Gnutzmann (1999) declared that “cultural topics relating to countries where English is spoken as a native language, particularly the United Kingdom and the United States, have to be complemented by topics dealing with other parts of the world in order to do justice to the global use of English in classroom teaching” (165). Besides widening the scope of topics geographically, Gnutzmann thinks that a “stronger orientation towards social, economic, scientific and technological topics with an international or global dimension would seem an appropriate measure in view of the global dimension of English”, a change which could probably happen “at the expense of target culture-specific topics” (166). Baxter (1991) seems to share the same viewpoint when he says that “teaching materials should be drawn from all the various English-using communities, not only L1 communities, so as to introduce students to the different manners of speaking English and to build an attitudinal base of acceptance” (67).

Medgyes (1999a) also indicates that teaching EIL is basically teaching “a large stock of native and non-native varieties of English” (185). Native English teachers will certainly teach the variety they are native of, while non-native teachers should choose a widely spoken variety – British English and American English are the most obvious choices. However, all teachers should incorporate “familiarity with other native and non-native varieties and tolerance toward non-standard norms” (186) in their classes. Gnutzmann (1999) adds that although BrE and AmE will continue to be the theoretical model, learners do not necessarily have to conform to these standards. He believes that “expecting learners to comply with the set of linguistic norms would probably put unnecessary pressure on them, since they would hardly be able to fully live up to such expectations” (165). Rather than implying that would not be able to manage such situations, Gnutzmann seems to agree with Wells’s (1982) concept of ‘reference accents’ rather than ‘target accents’.

Gnutzmann believes that English language classes should increase the learners’ linguistic awareness, by covering topics of “linguistic variation and varieties of many types: national, regional, social, functional, international” (167). More specifically, these classes should do the following: (1) demonstrate the interdependent relationship

between language, linguistic varieties and culture in national, international and global settings; (2) illustrate the linguistic, cultural and intercultural diversity of English; (3) provide theoretical insights into the description of linguistic varieties; (4) help students to become aware of some systematic phonetic, lexical and grammatical differences between varieties; and (5) study and exemplify sociolinguistic variables (167).

Strevens (1992) states that TEIL implies an “awareness of the fact that most ESL/EFL relates to non-native speaker populations requiring English for their internal purposes, or for dealing with other non-native speaker populations, without the presence or intervention of native speakers” (41). In view of this, Modiano (2000) stresses the idea that EIL students should be exposed to a wide scope of native and non-native Englishes, without aiming at near-native proficiency.

Similarly, Cook (1999) suggests ways to move beyond the use of native speaker in language teaching and focus on the student as a user of the language: (1) present students with examples of the language of L2 users and of the language addressed to L2 users rather than native speaker varieties; (2) teaching should reflect the language L2 users employ with other L2 users and the modifications L1 users make in their speech to L2 users; (3) present situations in materials in which L2 users take part; (4) see L1 as a positive factor in the classroom and use it to present meaning, to communicate during classroom activities or in activities that involve both languages; and (5) use descriptions of L2 users rather than descriptions of native speakers as a source of information.

Cook finally adds that the move beyond the native speaker seems to rely more on a change of perspectives about models rather than following these specific suggestions: “Together with the change in attitude, placing more emphasis on the successful L2 user and on using the L1 more in teaching can bring language teaching to the realization that it is helping people use L2s, not imitate language speakers” (204).

Predictably, any change of attitudes towards native speakers and native varieties will bring consequences to the role of the language teacher in the classroom. Thus, applied linguists have been reassessing the value of native and non-native English teachers when the English taught is approached as an international language.

2.7.1. Native teachers vs. non-native teachers in TEIL

Seidlhofer (1999) criticizes the view that native speakers are seen as ‘infallible informants’ as their language has not been ‘meddled with’ for pedagogic purposes, giving them advantage over non-native teachers (237). To illustrate this perspective, Phillipson (1992b) calls attention to a policy statement on foreign language teaching in Europe after 1992 (in Freudestein, 1991) which says that “The native speaker should become the standard foreign-language teacher within the countries of the European Community. They know best what is important in the language teaching of tomorrow: the active and creative language use in everyday communication” (13). In Phillipson’s opinion, the view that the native teacher is the ideal teacher “is a cornerstone of monolingual pedagogy” (13).

Gnutzmann (1999) states that for a long time the professional ambitions of non-native teachers were basically aimed at becoming like native speakers; however, in his opinion, this is not quite true nowadays as “most language teachers have become aware themselves, or have been made aware by others that native speaker competence is an unrealistic, and for that reason perhaps even counterproductive, goal for non-native speakers” (160). But have non-native English teachers’ aims really changed?

Medgyes (1999b) sees the non-native teacher as having a less reliable knowledge of English than native teachers and “likely to have relatively scanty information about the culture, or rather cultures, of English-speaking countries” (36). Medgyes puts the non-native teacher at a ‘junction’ where ‘by birth we [non-native teachers] represent our native language and culture, but by profession we are obliged to represent a foreign language with its cultural load” (37). It is interesting to note that Medgyes does not acknowledge the fact that students may want to learn English to express their own identity and culture in international settings.

Furthermore, Medgyes believes that most non-native teachers struggle “to acquire a bit more *Englishness*” (38), consequently suffering from an inferiority complex caused by flaws in their knowledge of the language, and that as far as language proficiency and familiarity with at least one English-speaking culture are concerned, native teachers “are better off – and usually immeasurably better off!” (38) It is quite clear that Medgyes

places a lot of emphasis on the teaching of native cultures, an approach which does not harmonize with what many propose in the teaching of English as an international language. Medgyes does not even consider that some learners might not aim to acquire knowledge of cultural aspects of English native communities.

Similarly, Phillipson (1992b) believes that the native speaker may be better qualified than the non-native speaker because the native speaker teacher can demonstrate fluent and appropriate language, appreciate the cultural connotations of the language, and assess whether a language form is correct or not. However, he stresses that while on the one hand, these are not crucial virtues in teacher training, on the other hand, well trained non-native teachers can acquire these skills. In these circumstances, Phillipson refers to the fact that non-native teachers may be better qualified than native teachers for a number of reasons. First, they have gone through the complex process of acquiring English as a second/foreign language. Second, they have insight into the linguistic and cultural needs of their learners. Third, they may have a detailed awareness of how mother tongue and target language differ and consequently what is difficult for L2 learners. Finally, they have first-hand experience of using a second or foreign language.

Seidlhofer (1999) also refers to some advantages of non-native teachers. She calls them *double agents* as “they are at home with the language(s) and culture(s) they share with the students, but they also know the relevant terrain inhabited by the target language” (235). In her opinion, what is often perceived as a weakness can be used as an important resource. The language learning experience shared by non-native students and teachers should thus constitute the basis for non-native teachers’ confidence, not for their insecurity” (238). Moreover, Seidlhofer believes that non-native teachers are more able to use materials and methods in the classroom which are meaningful thus enhancing learning.

Medgyes (1992, 1999b) lists some positive aspects of being a non-native English teacher. According to him, non-native English teachers can: provide a good learner model for imitation; teach language learning strategies more effectively; supply learners with more information about the English language; anticipate and prevent language difficulties better; be more empathetic to the needs and problems of learners; and finally, make use of the learners’ mother tongue.

Kershaw (1996) comments that the native speaker teacher's lack of formal knowledge of English and experience in learning a foreign language make the 'good' non-native-speaker teachers have a more prominent role. According to Kershaw, the native speaker may not be the one who best understands the native culture in the sense that he/she may not be "able to present a broader and simpler view of the culture appropriate for the learner" (9). However, Kershaw seems to generalize some possible features of native teachers as nowadays more and more English-speaking teachers choose to take teacher training courses with linguistic and methodological components and are competent users of foreign languages.

Medgyes (1992) states that while non-language-specific variables which can be equally applied to both native and non-native teachers such as experience, age, sex, aptitude, charisma, motivation, and training can have a vital role in the teaching/learning process, one variable that plays in favour of native teachers is their command of the language. However, Medgyes assumes that it is the non-natives' deficient English language competence that "enables them to compete with native speakers, particularly in monolingual ELT settings" (346). In such contexts, "*The more proficient in English, the more efficient in the classroom* is a valid statement" (347). But while non-native teachers should try to improve their knowledge of English, native teachers should try to improve their knowledge of the grammar of the language.

Medgyes then argues that both native and non-native teachers can be equally effective "because in the final analysis their respective strengths and weaknesses balance each other out" (347). For Medgyes, there can only be an ideal native teacher, "one who has achieved a high degree of proficiency in the learners' mother tongue" (348), and an ideal non-native teacher, "one who has achieved near-native proficiency in English" (349).

Besides the roles of native and non-native teachers, another central aspect in the teaching of English as an international language is the identification of the kind of motivation students have to learn the language.

2.7.2. Motivation and the EIL learner

To date, the most influential motivation theory in the field of second language acquisition has been proposed by Robert Gardner and associates. Gardner's social psychological construct of language learning motivation has introduced the most widely known concepts in the field: instrumental and integrative orientations. Although there have been some recent developments in the field of motivation in language learning, Gardner's influence can still be felt. Based on Gardner's work, Oxford (1996) says that while integrative orientation is related to a desire for learning the language for the purpose of cultural/linguistic integration within the culture of the second language community, instrumental motivation "is motivation to learn the language for a practical purpose, such as getting a better job, earning more money, entering a better college or graduate school, and so on" (3).

However, Oxford stresses that instrumental motivation should have a greater prominence in theory and research, at least in foreign language environments: "The question of whether motivations differ between learners of second and foreign language is very important and has been repeatedly raised in recent years" (4). Similar viewpoints have been raised by other researchers on motivation. Brown (1987) believes that sometimes "the foreign language does not carry with it the heavy cultural loading that some have assumed to be characteristic of all language learning contexts" (116-117). Schmidt et al. (1996) also affirm that although Gardner has emphasized the role of integrative motivation in language learning, "this does not seem to be the case in all language learning settings" (13). Schmidt et al. offer a different approach to integrative orientation when they say that it "may but does not necessarily include willingness or desire to actually integrate into the target language group" (12).

Graham (1984) proposed a distinction between integrative and assimilative motivation based on the learner's actual level of interest in becoming part of the target language group. On the one hand, integrative motivation would be the desire to learn the language to communicate with, or find out about, members of the second language culture. This type of motivation does not necessarily imply direct contact with the second language group. On the other hand, assimilative motivation is the desire to become a member of the second language community usually requiring prolonged contact with that culture. According to Brown (1987), "integrative motivation takes on

less of a pervading affective character and becomes more of a simple contrast to instrumental motivation” as “one can be integratively oriented without desiring to ‘lose oneself’ in the target language” (117).

Dörnyei (1990: 49) calls attention to the fact that in a foreign-language learning context “learners often have not had sufficient experience of the target-language community to have attitudes for or against it”. He refers to the fact that Littlewood (1984) had already pointed out that “this is particularly true of learning an international language, in which the aim of learning is not so much to get in contact with the native-speaking community, as to communicate with others who have also learned it as a foreign language”. In these language learning contexts, affective predispositions toward the target language group seem to have little relevance. Consequently, “in FLL situations, instrumental motivation, intellectual, and sociocultural motives, and/or other motivational factors that have not as yet been analyzed, may acquire a special importance”. However, Dörnyei proposes that it is possible that “affective factors that are normally part of integrative motivation in SLA contexts do play a role in FLL as well, but that such attitudes, interests, and values are supposed to form clusters that differ from those emerging in SLA contexts”.

Williams & Burden (1997) are more assertive when they state that “while integrative motivation is perhaps more important in a second language context (...), an instrumental orientation may be important in other situations such as learning English in the Philippines or Bombay, or in other contexts where English functions more as a foreign language such as Japan” (117).

Another recent development in the field of language learning motivation has been the identification of educational factors as important variables to be analysed. Dörnyei (1996) expands the social psychological model “by focusing more on motivation as reflected in students’ classroom learning behaviours” (71). According to him, motivation also contains an educational and personal dimension. Basically, Dörnyei proposes a framework for language learning motivation on three levels: the language level, the learner level, and the learning situation level. These three levels are directly related with three basic constituents of the L2 process, namely the target language, the language learner, and the language learning environment, also reflecting three aspects of

language (the social dimension, the personal dimension, and the educational subject matter dimension).

As far as the language level of motivation is concerned, Dörnyei associates ethnolinguistic, cultural-affective, intellectual, and pragmatic values and attitudes attached to the target language. According to him, “these values and attitudes are, to a large extent, determined by the social milieu in which the learning takes place” (77). This is to say that second language and foreign language environments will probably affect the language learning process differently and the motivational variables in one context might not be present (or be less relevant) in the other.

Dörnyei (2001a) reinforces the idea that a key issue to be researched is the influence of the wider social environment in supporting or hindering the acquisition of L2: “Foreign/second languages are learned in such diverse contexts that a lack of accounting for the contextual differences might render any motivation theory useless” (66). For Dörnyei, “parents, teachers, the learner’s peer group and the school play a significant role in shaping student motivation in general” (78).

However, Dörnyei affirms that while the study of the sociocultural context has been present in the motivational research for at least a couple of decades, little emphasis has been given to the analysis of the role that the classroom and school environments play in the learning process. Nevertheless, Dörnyei states that research in the first half of the 1990s did incorporate the new emerging educational orientation in an attempt to prove that “motivational sources closely related to the learners’ immediate classroom environment have a stronger impact on the overall L2 motivation complex than had been expected” (105).

Clark & Trafford (1995) found out that teachers and learners consider the relationship between teacher and student as the most significant variable affecting learner’s attitudes towards second language learning. However, although teachers seem to play a central role in motivation, they have been quite ignored in research on L2 motivation.

Williams & Burden (1997) offer a similar approach to investigating motivational factors when they state that motivation is a combination of internal factors (those that come

from inside the learner) and external factors (for instance, the influence of other people). According to Williams & Burden, “some important external factors are: significant others (parents, teachers, peers); the nature of interaction with significant others; the learning environment; the broader context (wider family network, the local education system, conflicting interests, cultural norms, societal expectations and attitudes)” (139-140).

These researchers offer a “cognitive and constructivist, socially contextualised and dynamically interactive” (137) approach, in which motivation involves decisions, or rather, choice about actions or behaviours. These decisions will depend on the individual’s construction of the world, their internal attributes – such as personality and confidence – and mediating influences. It is important to note that “the internal attributes and the mediating influences are affected by the beliefs, the society and the culture of the world surrounding them” (137). Williams & Burden also refer to the fact that “the particular culture of a country or region will influence what happens within that country’s education system, and this in turn will have an effect on schools, teachers, parents and others” (139).

Although Williams & Burden offer a quite comprehensive view on the educational factors that might influence learners’ attitudes and motivation towards the language, they seem to have overlooked the importance of the language syllabus and textbooks. The culture of a country will certainly be reflected in its education system and possibly the most appropriate ways to perceive this influence is through a careful analysis of how the syllabus and textbooks construct the teaching and learning process. Hopefully, this study will attempt to fill this gap.

The previous sections have tried to identify the fundamental elements that should be used to characterize English as an international language. In the overall debate on EIL, the following concepts need to be thoroughly discussed: the use and influence of AmE/BrE and other standard and non-standard varieties; the analysis of EIL as a language variety; the role of EIL in cross-cultural communicative exchanges; the roles of native speakers and non-native speakers; the concepts of ownership and intelligibility of English; and the relevant aspects of teaching and learning EIL – native and non-

native varieties and cultures, the depiction of native and non-native teachers, students' motivation to learn the language and the setting of a native target model or aiming at communicative competence. However, rather than looking at these issues separately, one should try to integrate them and the most appropriate way to do so is through the identification of the basic principle which applies to EIL. Fundamentally, EIL should be approached as a new set of attitudes toward the English language and it is this belief that underlies the present study.

2.8. EIL as a new set of attitudes

Metaphorically speaking, EIL is like a 'patchwork quilt' which needs to have its parts stitched together with very strong thread to form a single well assembled whole, in which each part is indispensable to the beauty and functionality of the whole. And the thread that sews this patchwork quilt is the attitudes of language users toward each of the parts put together. As pointed out in the previous sections, many researchers who have examined some of these 'parts', such as English varieties and cultures, cross-cultural communication, native and non-native speakers, ownership of English and social and educational motivational factors, remarked that a change of attitudes is inevitable if one is to regard English as the world's lingua franca.

As early as in the 80s, Trifonovitch (1981) called attention to the maintenance of old attitudes in a new model of teaching and learning English. He stated that the attitudes that had been adopted in learning English to communicate with native speakers, such as native English as the norm and native speakers as norm providers, were being transferred to the idea of English as a language of international communication.

Trifonovitch believes that the presumed causes of misunderstandings in communicative exchanges involving native and non-native speakers, "such as dialectal variations, phonological problems and other linguistic difficulties, are not as serious as they are often made out to be" (211). According to Trifonovitch, these issues are just the manifestations of psychological and cultural attitudes that have been extended into English as it has developed into a global language.

Based on his encounters, Trifonovich identifies some frequent attitudes of native and non-native speakers, EFL and ESL, towards each other. Trifonovich, an EFL speaker of English himself, reports that native speakers “who have been in contact with foreigners or have travelled to other countries and supposedly have developed a *cross-cultural sophistication*” (213) have shown an overly condescending attitude towards non-native speakers. On the other hand, ESL speakers of English frequently show an attitude of superiority “by becoming very verbose and eloquent in their conversation as a demonstration of their status in the English-speaking hierarchy” (214). Finally, Trifonovich identifies an attitude of inadequacy among EFL learners, who “often apologise for their inability to speak English correctly, make excuses for their poor English, and ask for the native English speaker’s indulgence and forgiveness” (213). What is implied in Trifonovich’s remarks is that these attitudes should not be fostered in the context of English as an international language. The patronizing native speaker, the apologetic EFL speaker and the status-seeking ESL speaker do not fit into the construction of English as a global language. Such attitudes perpetuate the notion of native English and native speakers as targets to be achieved.

Stevens (1992) talks about the recent development of ‘non-ethnocentred’ uses of English, “where the nationality of the individual and linguistic history of his country are equally irrelevant, and what determines the use of English is his or her job, hobby, or field of study” (31). Furthermore, Smith (1983b) states that both “native and non-native speakers everywhere must become aware of the widespread shift in attitudes and assumptions about the language” (8).

According to Modiano (1999b), “a linguistic chauvinism, or if you will, ethnocentricity, is so deeply rooted, not only in British culture, but also in the minds and hearts of a large number of language teachers working abroad, that many of the people who embrace such bias find it difficult to accept that other varieties of English, for some learners, are better choices for the educational model in the teaching of English as a foreign or second language” (6). What Modiano means is that even though many language teachers all over the world believe that English language learning and teaching are based on British, and to a certain extent, American standards and their cultural representations, many students would profit from a non-ethnocentred and linguacentred (i.e. which values a specific variety of English) approach to English. Such teachers may

not be able to see the advantages of dealing with English from an international linguistic and cultural perspective. Consequently, students may have mixed feelings toward the language if teachers continue to present the language in ways that do not meet the students' motivation and learning purposes.

Such prevalent linguacentric and ethnocentric attitudes of many native and non-native speakers are central to the EIL debate. Unfortunately, little importance has been given to the identification of language users' attitudes toward English. Dealing with and accepting the idea of EIL may depend a lot on the views of the people involved in English language teaching, namely learners and teachers, all over the world. Consequently, if we want to know the future of international English, it is crucial to identify students' and teachers' attitudes toward the characteristics of English as a global language.

2.8.1. Why measure attitudes

According to Oppenheim (1996), attitude is a state of readiness, a tendency to act or react in speech or other behaviour when confronted with certain stimuli – when the object of the attitude is perceived or when confronted with an attitude questionnaire. Attitudes are reinforced by beliefs (the cognitive component) often attracting strong feelings (the emotional component) that will lead to particular forms of behaviour (the action tendency component) (105-106). Oppenheim stresses the emotional component when he states that “attitudes are only very rarely the product of a balanced conclusion after a careful assembly of evidence” (111). Instead, attitudes are usually acquired when one reacts to the attitudes of other people.

McGroarty (1996), quoting Gardner (1985), defines attitude as “an underlying psychological predisposition to act or evaluate behaviour in a certain way”, adding that “attitude is thus linked to a person's values and beliefs and promotes or discourages the choices made in all realms of activity, whether academic or informal” (5).

Basically, studies on attitudes toward language have been of three types: studies on native speakers' attitudes toward language, studies on non-native speakers' attitudes toward language, and studies on attitudes toward non-native English.

2.8.1.1. Studies on native speakers' attitudes toward language

Early studies on language attitudes have focused on native speaker attitudes to other native speakers of the same language. For example, Lambert et al. (1960) studied the attitudes of Anglophone and Francophone Canadians toward English and French. Labov (1969) examined the English used by New York African Americans. Tucker and Lambert (1969) had three groups of college students (northern white, southern white and southern black) evaluate six dialects of American English. Gilles & Powesland (1975) conducted a study where student teachers assessed students based on photographs, taped speech sample, and schoolwork.

2.8.1.2. Studies on non-native speakers' attitudes toward language

According to Fasold (1984), “there are numerous applications of language-attitude research, including the role of attitudes in second-language acquisition, (...) [and] the study of attitudes toward foreign accents” (176). For example, Shaw (1983) analysed Asian students' attitudes toward English and the variety they wished to learn. Eisenstein & Verdi (1985) assessed second language working class subjects' ability to discriminate between standard American English, New York English and Black Vernacular English. Alford & Strother (1990) examined the attitudes of native and non-native English speakers to Americans using different accents (North, South, and Mid-West). Bolton & Kwok (1990) looked at the attitudes of over 100 Hong Kong university students toward advanced RP, near RP, mild US, broad US, mild HK and broad HK. Jarvella et al. (2001) examined Danish EFL university students' ability to identify four speakers' (American, British, Scottish and Irish) origins and their affective reaction to their speech.

2.8.1.3. Studies on attitudes toward non-native English

In spite of all these studies, Forde (1995) concludes that “there is a relatively paucity of research into perception of different varieties by non-native speakers” (90). Matsuura et al (1994) also draw attention to this issue when they say that “although language attitude is not a new field of study we have not seen many attitude studies involving

non-native varieties of English” (53). In an attempt to fill this gap, these same authors (1994) examined Japanese college students’ attitudes toward native and non-native varieties of English – Malay, Chinese Malay, Bangladeshi, Micronesian, Hong Kongese, Sri Lankan and American English. In another study, these authors (Chiba et al., 1995) identified some Japanese attitudes toward English accents, such as Japanese, Sri Lankan, Hong Kongese, Malay, American and British. Forde (1995) has also contributed to this field by studying learner attitudes toward five accents of English – Standard American English, Australian English, Hong Kong Chinese English, Standard British English (RP) and a regional British English accent (Yorkshire). El-Dash & Busnardo (2001) conducted an attitudes study with Brazilian students in the 7th-9th grades using six bilingual speakers (2 Brazilians, 2 Americans and 2 British). This study appropriately distinguished the two major varieties of English – AmE and BrE – and included speakers of the subjects’ first language. However, it did not incorporate other native and ESL varieties.

To date, there has not been any major study on non-native speakers’ perceptions of different varieties of English. As far as the European context is concerned, there is a lack of studies analyzing European EFL students’ and teachers’ attitudes toward native and non-native varieties.

2.8.1.4. Studies on attitudes toward native and non-native varieties of English in Europe

Most studies in Europe have aimed at identifying attitudes toward the English language and its influence on the local language and culture (Dushku, 1998; Findahl, 1996; Fonzari, 1999; Goethals, 1997; Griffin, 1997; Petzold & Berns, 2000; Preisler, 1999; Ross, 1996, 1999; Smith, 1997; Thurmer, 1997). However, few studies have dealt with attitudes toward varieties of English. Dalton-Puffer et al. (1997) surveyed learner attitudes to native (GA, RP, near-RP) and non-native accents (Austrian American English and Austrian British English) in Austria. Flaitz (1993) examined French attitudes toward American and British English, among other issues. To date, there are no studies available on the attitudes of EFL students and teachers toward native and non-native varieties of English in Portugal.

2.8.2. Studies on attitudes toward EIL

The above mentioned studies on attitudes have clearly focused on native and non-native varieties and accents. However, no study has been conducted to include other features of English as an international language. While it is possible to find studies on attitudes toward native and non-native speakers and teachers, studies on the intelligibility of native and non-native varieties, and studies which attempt to identify learners' motivation to learn English, a comprehensive study which encompassed the core principles of EIL which have been identified in this chapter has not been carried out yet. Moreover, little has been written on the characteristics of learning and using English as an international language in the Expanding Circle, much less in Portugal.

All things considered, it is the purpose of this study to fill this gap through a wide-ranging analysis of Portuguese students' and teachers' attitudes towards learning and teaching EIL. In contexts where English is used as a foreign language, it is vital to identify both learners' and teachers' attitudes in order to implement more coherent and effective educational policies through syllabuses and textbooks which take into consideration the beliefs and opinions of the individuals involved in the learning/teaching process.

Thus, the central tenet of this study is that the analysis of learners' and teachers' attitudes is the most adequate way to assess how EIL is dealt with in a country of the Expanding Circle. It is hoped that the findings can contribute to the EIL debate by providing a careful and detailed analysis of the current ELT situation in Portugal as far as teaching English as an international language is concerned.

2.9. Summary of chapter

This chapter attempted to define and identify the main features of EIL which are relevant to a context of English as a foreign language. It presented some definitions of EIL based on its linguistic features and as the language used in cross-cultural communication, with special emphasis on the concept of intelligibility. Then, it considered a definition of EIL as a language variety. Next, it referred to the roles of native and non-native speakers and the problem of language ownership of English as an international language. Some criticisms of EIL based on the socio-political and

educational contexts were then presented. Later, it analysed some ELT practices which consider English as an international language, the value of native and non-native teachers and the motivational components in learning English. Following that, it referred to how EIL should be approached as a new set of attitudes.

When put together, these sections should be seen as the framework of analysis proposed by this study. Admittedly, many other issues related to EIL were left out but the aim of this study is to approach EIL from the standpoint of a country in the Expanding Circle, more specifically from the Portuguese ELT context. In view of this, it was believed that the issues addressed in this chapter are the key ones in an attempt to describe the position of EIL in Portugal.

The following chapter (Design and Methodology of the study) will describe how the elements examined in this chapter are used to help identify the current situation of ELT in Portugal and students' and teachers' attitudes toward learning and teaching English.

Chapter 3: Design and methodology of the study

3.1. Introduction

Chapter 3 will be devoted to the description of the methodology used in the research. Due to the character and scope of the study, the methodological issue assumes overriding importance in the structure of the investigation. After careful analysis of the major issues related to EIL and the research carried out to analyse them (see Chapter 2), it became apparent that there is a lack of methodological innovation in this area. In these circumstances, it can be remarked that probably an important contribution of this study lies in the methodology used to investigate EIL in a country of the Expanding Circle.

The significance of the methodology can be accounted for based on four key aspects. First, it attempts to integrate the theory and practice of EIL in the educational context. Second, in order to provide an in-depth and careful investigation into the learning and teaching of English in Portugal, this study makes use of diverse methods of data collection and analysis such as written questionnaires, interviews, English syllabi and classroom materials. However, it is through the use of real language samples in the questionnaires and interviews (audio and video activities) that the methodological innovation can be more clearly identified. Also, it stresses the importance of analyzing English users' attitudes toward learning and teaching the language (see section 2.8). Finally, it approaches the complexities of the role of English as an international language by examining several issues which help provide a thorough picture of the characteristics of global English.

This chapter will start by explaining the paradigm adopted in the research. Next, it will introduce the research questions which guided the collection and analysis of data. Then, the reasons for using the methods of data collection and interpretation are set forth. The following section will identify the subjects and documents employed and examined in the study. After that, the qualitative and quantitative methods used – questionnaires, interviews and documents – will be thoroughly described. Later on, a section is dedicated to the analysis of the study's reliability, validity and objectivity. Finally, the limitations of the research will be acknowledged.

3.2. Research paradigm

Guba & Lincoln (1994:105) define paradigm as the basic belief system or worldview that guides the investigator, not only in choices of method but in ontologically and epistemologically fundamental ways. Moreover, they add that any given paradigm represents simply the most informed and sophisticated view that its proponents have been able to devise, given the way they have chosen to respond to the three defining questions: the ontological, the epistemological and the methodological questions (108). Considering the aims and scope of this research, the paradigm used was the postpositivist one¹⁰.

3.2.1. Postpositivism

According to Lincoln & Guba (2000:168), postpositivism is characterized by the following views. Ontologically, it sees reality objectively but imperfectly and probabilistically apprehendable. Consequently, claims of external reality must be critically examined. Epistemologically, it tries for objectivity as findings are probably true and should be replicated. Methodologically, it uses modified experimental or manipulative strategies of data production and interpretation. Although the emphasis might be on quantitative methods, it may also include qualitative ones.

This research follows closely on Guba & Lincoln's (1994) remarks on postpositivist explanation of how knowledge accumulates:

Knowledge accumulates by a process of accretion, with each fact (or probable fact) serving as a kind of building block that, when placed into its proper niche, adds to the growing "edifice of knowledge." When the facts take the form of generalizations or cause-effect linkages, they may be used most efficiently, for prediction and control. Generalizations may then be made, with predictable confidence, to a population of settings. (113-114)

3.3. Research questions

The research questions of this study were formulated based on two central aspects: the *theory* and the *practice* of EIL in Portugal. On the one hand, one set of questions

¹⁰ Lincoln & Guba (2000:168) summarize the basic beliefs of alternative inquiry paradigms – positivism, postpositivism, critical theory et al., constructivism, participatory.

addresses the theoretical background of learning and teaching EIL while another set approaches the practical side through the identification of attitudes toward EIL. Finally, one question aims at comparing the findings in the two previous sets of questions. The specific research questions that try to frame the study are:

1. How do the current ELT *policies* and *materials* for basic and secondary education in Portugal represent EIL?
 - 1.a. Is the English taught/learned in Portugal today culturally attached to English-speaking communities or internationally oriented and ideologically neutral?
 - 1.b. Is the English taught/learned in Portugal today linguistically centred on British English only or does it present characteristics of other varieties (American English or other native and non-native varieties)?
2. How does the *practice* of ELT in Portugal today represent EIL?
 - 2.a. What are the students' attitudes toward EIL?
 - 2.b. What are the teachers' attitudes toward EIL?
 - 2.c. Are there significant differences between the students' and the teachers' attitudes toward EIL?
3. Do the representations of EIL in *policies* and *materials* and in the students' and teachers' *minds* and *practices* converge or diverge?

The concept of EIL was investigated based on the identification of the following pivotal aspects related to ELT (see Chapter 2):

1. Varieties of English:

- exposure to and familiarity with as many varieties and accents of English as possible – ENL, ESL, EFL
- any variety and style of English can be acceptable if it functions well in international communication
- non-native varieties are not viewed as some kind of interlanguage on the path to native speaker English/no more prestige accents models
- mixing standards (AmE/BrE) – grammar, lexis, pronunciation, discourse and style
- understanding the differences between AmE and BrE

2. Cultural issues:

- contact with a variety of cultures not just cultures of the English-speaking world (cross-cultural communication)
- developing an understanding of the student's own culture
- developing a sensitivity and awareness toward understanding other cultures
- no desire of language users to become more like native speakers in their life style

3. International role of English:

- cross-cultural, cross-linguistic interactions, essentially in international communication contexts
- EIL is not the same as ESL or EFL

4. Language fluency:

- working toward a native English speaker communicative competence is neither necessary nor sufficient when English is to be used as an international language

5. Ownership of language:

- English belongs to the world and not to its native speakers
- English is the means of expression of the speaker's culture, not an imitation of the culture of GB, the US or any other native English speaking country

6. The role of non-native speakers:

- recognition that in the great majority of non-native speaker populations English will be taught mostly by non-native speakers of the language, to non-native speakers, in order to communicate mainly with other non-native speakers
- awareness of the fact that most ESL/EFL today relates to NNS populations requiring English for their internal purposes, for dealing with other NNS populations, without the presence or intervention of native speakers

7. The role of native speakers:

- attitude of linguistic tolerance
- knowledge of how other people structure information and argument when using English
- realise that non-native speakers need not sound like or act like Americans, the British or any other group of native speakers in order to be effective English users
- need training in the use of their own language in international settings

8. Motivation toward learning English:

- instrumental motivation (usage is not so much associated with a specific native tongue culture) (vs. ELT's traditional view of the students' integrative motivation)

The following section will introduce the methods of data collection and analysis used to approach the above mentioned research questions.

3.4. Methods of data collection and analysis: qualitative and quantitative approaches

This study makes use of both qualitative and quantitative strategies of inquiry. The combination of multiple methodological practices, empirical materials, perspectives, and observers in a single study is best understood, then, as a strategy that adds rigor, breadth, complexity, richness, and depth to any inquiry (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:5).

While qualitative researchers stress the socially constructed nature of reality, the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is studied, and the situational constraints that shape inquiry, quantitative studies emphasize the measurement and analysis of causal relationships between variables, not processes. (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:8). Moreover, Denzin & Lincoln observe that postpositivists argue that reality can never be fully apprehended, only approximated. Consequently, postpositivism relies on multiple methods as a way of capturing as much of reality as possible (9).

The choice of using both quantitative and qualitative methods in this study aimed at enriching data and attempting to balance the weaknesses of any one method. Moser & Carlton (1986:239) note that a combination of methods is often appropriate to make use of their different strengths. Each method has its limitations, and in many instances a combination of methods has much to commend it. Gilham (2000a:81) also stresses the advantages of a multi-method approach when he points out that if you use a range of methods you can put together a more adequate picture. Denscombe (1998:85) observes that different methods complement each other as they see the things from different perspectives. Also, one method can corroborate or question/discard the findings of another method. Finally, he adds that seeing things from a different perspective and the opportunity to corroborate findings can enhance the validity of the data.

3.4.1. Using a survey to collect data

Denscombe (1998:7) offers a definition of *survey* as a research approach that combines a commitment to a breadth of study, a focus on the snapshot at a given point in time and a dependence on empirical data. Verma & Mallick (1999:79-81) remark that surveys are one of the most commonly used methods of descriptive research in education and other social sciences. Surveys involve the gathering of limited data from a relatively large number of cases at a particular time. This method is frequently employed to indicate prevailing conditions or particular trends. Surveys include topics, such as population trends and movement, pupil and/or teacher opinions/attitudes on various educational matters, pupil drop-out rates, and so on. Moreover, surveys usually make use of sampling to produce valid and reliable data which can be generalized with some confidence.

Verma & Mallick (1999:115) add that in conducting a survey, the researcher will employ questionnaires and, probably, interviews. In this way, the results from one form of data will help to inform and refine the other data, so that the conclusions drawn are meaningful, precise and representative. Alternatively, the survey may be of documentary evidence.

This study uses the three methods of data collection in surveys referred by Denscombe (1998:10): (1) questionnaires, (2) face-to-face interviews, and (3) documents, in a cross-sectional approach as it involves examining the features of several groups at one point in time (Mertens, 1998:108). Surveys that gather data at a particular point in time attempt to describe the nature of existing conditions, to identify standards against which existing conditions can be compared, or determine the relationships that exist between specific events (Cohen et al., 2000:169).

3.4.2. Triangulation

Triangulation of data rests on the simple idea that several observations of a datum, a single piece of data, are better than one; the phrase implies that three are desirable. The idea of triangulating data is that while each observation is prone to error, taking the three together will provide a more accurate observation (Bechhofer & Paterson, 2000:57).

Padgett (1998:96) points out that triangulation is widely practised as a valuable means of enhancing rigor in qualitative research. Two types of triangulation can be found in this study: *triangulation by method* and *triangulation by data source*. First, triangulation by method (see Cohen et al., 2000:113, *methodological triangulation*) refers to the deployment of different methodologies in the same study. Combining qualitative and quantitative approaches is the most common triangulation-by-method strategy (Padgett, 1998:97). Second, triangulation by data source refers to the use of different types of data as a means of corroboration (Padgett, 1998:98).

Bechhofer & Paterson (2000:58) refer to two types of triangulation: *weak triangulation* and *strong triangulation*. The weak form is where we have multiple observations of something using the same method. The strong version is where several observations are made using different methods. This study attempted to make use of strong triangulation by using different methods of data collection.

Space triangulation, another type of triangulation identified by Cohen et al. (2000:113), can also be found in this study. Space triangulation attempts to overcome the limitations of studies conducted within one culture or sub-culture, for example when a number of schools in an area or across the country are investigated in some way (115). In this study, data were collected in institutions located in different regions of Portugal (see Appendix 3.1).

3.4.3. Questionnaires

McDonough & McDonough (1997:171, 179-181) suggest that questionnaire research seems to be very popular among educational researchers in general and ELT in particular, especially in the areas of study skills, needs analysis, assessment, curriculum development, writing skills, metacognitive strategies, and programme evaluation. Wray et al. (1998:168) indicate that the areas of sociolinguistic work on attitudes towards language and second or foreign language teaching and learning also make extensive use of questionnaire-based research.

This study makes use of semi-structured questionnaires aimed at identifying students' and teachers' attitudes toward EIL as pointed out in research questions 2.a, 2.b and 2.c

(see section 3.3). Cohen et al. (2000:248) explain the advantages of semi-structured questionnaires: a series of questions, statements or items are presented and the respondent is asked to answer, respond to or comment on them in a way that he/she thinks best. There is a clear structure, sequence, focus, but the format is open-ended, enabling the respondent to respond in his/her own terms. Gilham (2000a:5) observes that questionnaires made up of multiple choice and open questions can lead to greater level of discovery and are good to identify the subject's opinions, beliefs and judgements. Wray et al. (1998:174-177) make a list of possible closed question designs: semantic differential scales, Likert scale (attitude scale), ranking schemes, multiple choice, true/false questions and yes/no questions.¹¹

Some problems and limitations of questionnaires:

Moser & Carlton (1986:317-318) observe that one of the problems with opinion questions arises from the uncertainty whether the respondent 'knows' the correct answer as a genuine opinion may require thought and self-analysis. Moreover, a person's opinion on virtually any issue is many-sided. The answer the respondent actually gives will depend on the aspect of the issue that is uppermost in his/her mind – quite possibly because the wording of the question, or the context created by previous ones, has put it there. In order to minimize these problems, Moser & Carlton suggest that rather than asking for opinions only, attempts should be made to actually measure attitudes. In other words, instead of simply trying to estimate what proportion of the survey population say they agree with a given opinion statement, questions should go further by including a number of opinion statements, and assessing the respondents' answers to the set of questions as a whole.

3.4.4. Interviews

Where the object of a questionnaire survey is to produce quantitative data, interviews are normally used to obtain qualitative data. It is common for the two tools to be used in the same study: the questionnaire providing what are often called the 'hard data', and the interviews making it possible to explore in greater detail and in depth some

¹¹ Similar lists are presented by McDonough & McDonough (1997:174-176) and Cohen et al. (2000:248-256).

particularly important aspects covered by the questionnaire (supplementary data) or related topics which do not lend themselves to the questionnaire approach (complementary data) (Verma & Mallick, 1999:122). This study focuses on the supplementary function of interviews as they covered much the same ground as the questionnaires but at a much greater level of detail (Verma & Mallick, 1999:118). Fundamentally, interviews were used together with questionnaires to answer research questions 2.a, 2.b and 2.c (see section 3.3).

Padgett (1998:8) observes that when the researcher seeks *verstehen*, or understanding, qualitative methods are invariably the path to take. Tierney & Dilley (2002:453) recognize the importance of interviews in educational research. Perhaps in no other field has qualitative inquiry in general and the qualitative interview in particular, become so prevalent in research and in theoretical and policy-related discussions as in education. Similarly, McDonough & McDonough (1997:172) emphasize that interviewing is also a popular technique among ELT research because it is usually one-to-one, and therefore sensitive to individual differences and nuances of emphasis and tone.

Verma & Mallick (1999:123) state that interviews fall into three categories. There is the 'structured' interview in which the interviewers have a list of prepared questions from which they cannot deviate. At the other extreme, there is the 'unstructured' or 'open-ended' interview in which the researcher has some broadly defined objectives but allows the interviewee a great deal of freedom in his or her responses. Between these two extremes lies the 'semi-structured' interview. Since there is a continuum between the two extremes, the extent to which a semi-structured interview is structured varies from case to case. McDonough & McDonough (1997:182) refer to the fact that what is essentially being represented is a spectrum, not hard-and-fast self-contained categories, from formal and controlled at one end to more open and less predictable at the other.

Essentially, this study makes use of semi-structured face-to-face audiotaped interviews. The choice of this type of interview was made based on the following reasons. First, semi-structured interviews have a structured overall framework but allow for greater flexibility within that, for example in changing the order of questions and for more extensive follow-up of responses (McDonough & McDonough, 1997:183). Second, the interviewer remains in control of the direction of the interview but with much more

leeway allowing for richer interactions and more personalized responses (184). Also, semi-structured interviews allow for a depth of feeling to be ascertained by providing opportunities to probe and expand the interviewee's responses. Finally, they allow for deviation from a prearranged text and to change the wording of questions. Although provision for negotiation, discussion and expansion of the interviewee's responses is made, the semi-structured interview will also impose an overall shape to the interview and help prevent aimless rambling (Opie, 2004:118).

Tierney & Dilley (2002:461) note that the most widely used format remains the individual interview, in which a researcher uses a tape recorder to record an individual's answers to particular questions. Padgett (1998:66) adds that audiotaping allows the interviewer to concentrate on what is being said (although briefly jotting down major points and observations to supplement the taping is not a bad idea).

Some problems and limitations of interviews:

Opie (2004:118) calls attention to one of the main problems in qualitative research: the possibility of researcher bias interfering. Opie believes that the relationship between the questions asked and the conclusions drawn are no longer straightforward. Consequently, one has to accept that no matter how well thought through the researcher thinks a question might be, it may have a different meaning for, and so result in a different answer from, the interviewee than the one the researcher intended.

Another limitation is pointed out by Gilham (2000b:94) when he suggests that the relationship between beliefs, opinions, knowledge and actual behaviour is not a straightforward one. Put simply, what people say in an interview is not the whole picture. Gilham says that adequate research and, in particular, adequate theorizing, needs to take account of that.

Finally, McDonough & McDonough (1997:185) identify a major area that seems particularly to impinge on language teacher research: the role relationship of interviewer-interviewee. This relationship may be symmetrical, as between peers, or asymmetrical, as between teacher and student. This will therefore have implications for

the formulation of questions as well as for their content, and will require a good deal of linguistic sensitivity and adaptability by the researcher.

3.4.5. Documentary analysis

Verma & Mallick (1999:111) refer to the fact that this tool is most frequently employed in descriptive studies, although it may form part of any kind of research. Citing Anderson (1994), these authors identify four common uses for document analysis: to describe the relative frequency and importance of certain topics; to evaluate bias, prejudice or propaganda in print materials; to assess the level of difficulty in reading materials; and to analyse types of errors in students' work.

Blaxter et al. (1996:151) state that the focus of data collection can be entirely or almost entirely, on documents of various kinds. For example, they might (a) be library-based, aimed at producing a critical synopsis of an existing area of research writing; (b) be computer-based consisting largely of the analysis of previously collected data sets; (c) have a policy focus, examining materials relevant to a particular set of policy decisions; and (d) have a historical orientation, making use of available archival and other surviving documentary evidence.

Similarly, Moser & Carlton (1986:240-244) suggest how different types of documents can supplement data obtained by observation, questionnaire and interviewing: (a) sources giving information about the survey population; (b) sources giving information about individual 'units of enquiry'; (c) personal documents. It is important to note that Moser & Carlton's examples of types of documents do not fit into the purposes of data collection in this survey. The first problem is the idea that document data will supplement data obtained by other methods of data collection. Moser & Carlton fail to see that documents can play a central role in surveys not by providing supplementary data but by identifying the central research data from which other sources of data will evolve, which is the case in this research.

In essence, the use of documentary analysis in this study follows two of the uses proposed by Anderson and Blaxter et al. Firstly, this study analysed some classroom materials such as textbooks, workbooks, teacher's books, etc. *to describe the relative*

frequency and importance of certain topics, namely references to and use of English language varieties (native and non-native) and references to English speaking and non-English speaking cultures. Secondly, it also examined *materials relevant to a particular set of policy decisions* as it analysed current Portuguese ELT policies for basic and secondary schools looking for references to EIL in general, and more specifically, references to native and non-native English language varieties and English speaking and non-English speaking cultures. Primarily, documentary analysis (ELT policies and classroom materials) was used to answer research questions 1.a and 1.b (see section 3.3).

Bechhofer & Paterson (2000:59) suggest that the analysis of documents and other kinds of text in already published or otherwise available form can be immensely rewarding. The authors stress that we are not able to exercise any control over the way documents are produced or what they contain, but on the other hand the texts, unlike transcripts of interviews, are not the result of a highly complex and inevitably somewhat artificial process of interaction.

Some problems and limitations of documentary analysis:

Verma & Mallick (1999:113) draw attention to the dangers of using an unrepresentative sample since this would bias the study's findings and damage them. The authors propose that it becomes necessary to sample the materials. Sampling can be done in a variety of ways such as looking at issues of each title which are selected by a pre-determined scheme or setting a particular time frame in which the 'start' and 'end' years ought to be linked to related significant events.

The following section identifies the subjects used in the questionnaires and interviews and the documents analysed in the study.

3.5. The subjects and documents in the study

The subjects in the questionnaires and interviews were divided into two groups: (1) English for Specific Purposes (ESP) students and teachers and (2) Teacher Trainees and

Teacher Trainers. ESP students and teachers are those who learn/teach English as a mandatory or optional subject on the curriculum of their courses, such as Hotel Management, Sociology, Computer Sciences, among others. Teacher trainees and Teacher trainers are students and teachers in English Language Teacher Education Courses. The subjects were part of four educational institutions, two universities – University of Evora (UE) and University of Lisbon (UL) – and two polytechnic institutes – School of Tourism and Hotel Management of Estoril (ST) and School of Education of the Polytechnic Institute of Beja (SE) (see Appendix 3.2).

While the subjects of the questionnaires and interviews are students and teachers in higher education institutions, the textbooks and documents analysed refer to basic and secondary education. It is hoped that this choice of subjects and data will offer a more complete picture of ELT in Portugal for a number of reasons. First, some of the student subjects are English teacher trainees who will become teachers in basic and secondary schools. Second, all student subjects have recently finished their secondary education level which means that they all had gone through basic and secondary education following the ELT policies and textbooks analysed in this study. Also, compared to students in basic and secondary schools, it is believed that students in university-level courses will have had enough experience in English language learning so as to be able to express their opinions and beliefs about the learning/teaching process.

Once this group of student subjects, i.e. in tertiary education, was selected, it seemed natural to include their teachers in the study. If on the one hand, it is vital to identify the attitudes of teacher trainers as it is believed that their own views of English will somehow affect their students' future pedagogical and linguistic approaches (see section 2.7.2.), on the other hand, in order to provide a more complete picture of ELT in higher education institutions and to establish a certain degree of comparison, it seemed relevant to include English language teachers in other tertiary courses. It is hoped that the data analysis and the conclusions drawn from the questionnaires and interviews, together with the textbooks and documents analysis, might have important implications for the teaching of English in basic, secondary as well as university levels.

The next sections (3.6, 3.7 and 3.8) will describe in detail the instruments used to collect data – questionnaires, interviews and documents.

3.6. The questionnaires in the study

This study made use of two semi-structured questionnaires, one for students and another for teachers. The aim of the questionnaires was to identify the subjects' (students and teachers) attitudes toward EIL. However, the questionnaires did not provide any definition of EIL, directly or indirectly through the questions. Moreover, it was not expected that the students or teachers would be able to define EIL. Attitudes towards EIL were verified through the subjects' reactions towards and opinion about several aspects of EIL such as the role of native and non-native teachers, setting a target standard language, the importance of studying the cultures of native and non-native countries, and so on (see Chapter 2 for the relevant aspects which help explain EIL).

Some of the questions in the questionnaires were based on the following studies: reasons for studying English (instrumental reasons, integrative reasons and personal satisfaction) and importance of English proficiency for attaining goals (Cooper, 1985); statements (Likert scale) with ideas about foreign languages and language learning (Chiba et al., 1995); desire to learn and use English for practical and personal purposes, Englishism in language, ethnocentrism in language, preference for AmE and/or BrE, instrumental motivation in learning English (Matsuura et al., 1994); reasons for studying English (instrumental and integrative) and need of English for specific language skills (Shaw, 1983).

3.6.1. The students' questionnaire

3.6.1.1. The questionnaire variables

Four variables are considered in the students' questionnaire: (1) university vs. polytechnic affiliation, (2) learning English for specific purposes (ESP students) vs. learning English to become an English teacher (teacher trainees), (3) length of time studying English and (4) spending time outside Portugal (in English speaking or non-English speaking countries).

First, the student's affiliation may indicate some differences in the results due to the different objectives in teacher training of both institutions. While universities in Portugal train English teachers to the 3rd *ciclo* and Secondary levels (from Year 7 to Year 12), polytechnic institutes train teachers to the 2nd *ciclo* only (Year 5 and Year 6) (see section 1.6 for the description of the Portuguese education system). Consequently, university teacher training programmes are expected to provide more advanced studies on English language, literature and culture. Also, universities and polytechnics possess different social status as universities are seen as more prestigious and educationally influential admitting students with higher standards of entrance. Second, it is believed that the differences in motivational purposes between the more instrumental reasons of ESP students and the teacher trainees' choice of becoming teachers of English may reflect in the results. Then, the number of years of learning the language may be important to be analysed because those who have studied English for a longer period may have achieved advanced competence in the language and might have had more contact with other ENL and ESL varieties and their cultures. Equally, they may also have developed competence in identifying and understanding EFL accents. Finally, the fact that students may have spent some time abroad (living or studying) in English speaking or non-English speaking countries may be conducive to a more internationally oriented approach to learning English.

A total of 247 students answered the questionnaire. The following are the frequencies and percentages of subjects in each of the variables:

A. Variable 1: Affiliation

57.1% (N=141) of the subjects were university students while 42.9% (N=106) were polytechnic students. Table 3.1 shows the frequency and percentage of subjects in each institution.

Affiliation					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	UE	84	34.0	34.0	34.0
	UL	57	23.1	23.1	57.1
	SE	32	13.0	13.0	70.0
	ST	74	30.0	30.0	100.0
	Total	247	100.0	100.0	

Table 3.1: Subjects’ affiliation (students) (Key: UE: University of Evora; UL: University of Lisbon; SE: School of Education; ST: School of Tourism)

B. Variable 2: Course (Teacher training vs. ESP)

64% (N=158) of the subjects were ESP students while 36% (N=89) were teacher trainees.

C. Variable 3: Length of time studying English

Due to the small numbers of two of the original categories in the questionnaire (*1 to 3 years*, N=3 and *4 to 6 years*, N=11), these categories were joined (*1 to 6 years*, N=14) in order to carry out chi-square statistics. It is interesting to note, however, that 70% (N=172) of the subjects have been studying English for 7 to 12 years. Table 3.2 shows the frequency and percentage of the subjects’ length of time studying English.

Length of time studying English					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 to 6 years	14	5.7	5.7	5.7
	7 to 9 years	102	41.3	41.5	47.2
	10 to 12 years	70	28.3	28.5	75.6
	More than 12 years	60	24.3	24.4	100.0
	Total	246	99.6	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.4		
Total		247	100.0		

Table 3.2: Subjects’ length of time studying English (students)

D. Variable 4: Spending time outside Portugal

When asked if they had ever spent time outside Portugal except for tourism, 71.7% (N=177) replied negatively. Those who had spent time outside Portugal (28.3%, N=70) were also asked if they had been to an English speaking country (ESC) or a non-English

speaking country (NESC). Students were then supposed to identify the country(ies) and the length of time spent there. The following categories were then created:

- 1. The student has been to an ESC;
- 2. The student has been to a NESC;
- 3. The student has been to both ESC and NESC.

However, due to the small numbers in categories 1 (17.4%, N=12) and 3 (8.7%, N=6), these categories were joined so that students who have been to both ESC and NESC were considered in the category of those who have been to an ESC. Table 3.3 shows the frequency and percentage of the subjects who spent time outside Portugal.

Spending time outside Portugal					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	The student has been to an ESC	18	25.7	26.1	26.1
	The student has been to a NESC	51	72.9	73.9	100.0
	Total	69	98.6	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.4		
Total		70	100.0		

Table 3.3: Spending time in an ESC or a NESC (students)

As for the length of time subjects spent outside Portugal, it is interesting to note that while most stayed less than a month in an ESC (44.4%, N=8), 37% (N=17) stayed from 1 to 11 months in a NESC. Table 3.4 present the frequency and percentage of the length of time spent in both ESCs and NESCs.

Length of time outside Portugal						
			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
The student has been to an ESC	Valid	Less than 1 month	8	44.4	44.4	44.4
		1 to 11 months	3	16.7	16.7	61.1
		1 to 6 years	5	27.8	27.8	88.9
		More than 6 years	2	11.1	11.1	100.0
		Total	18	100.0	100.0	
The student has been to a NESC	Valid	Less than 1 month	14	27.5	30.4	30.4
		1 to 11 months	17	33.3	37.0	67.4
		1 to 6 years	8	15.7	17.4	84.8
		More than 6 years	7	13.7	15.2	100.0
		Total	46	90.2	100.0	
	Missing	System	5	9.8		
Total			51	100.0		

Table 3.4: Length of time spent in ESCs and NESCs (students)

3.6.1.2. The questionnaire structure

The questionnaire consisted of three parts (see Appendix 3.3). First, Section I consisted of three questions which could only be answered after the subjects listened to a recording of five different speakers reading a short text. Second, Section II focused on gathering information about the four variables of the questionnaire. Finally, Section III had eleven questions that aimed at gathering information about the students' attitudes toward the English language, teachers, culture learning, etc. As all subjects who answered the questionnaire were Portuguese, the language used was Portuguese. Later on, the questionnaire data were translated into English and analysed. (see also section 3.6.1.1 for the questionnaire variables).

3.6.1.2.1. Section I

In this section, students listened to five different speakers of English (2 ENL – US and UK, 1 ESL – India, and 2 EFL – Portugal and Spain) in a contextualized situation (applying for a job as a TV programme narrator) and then reacted to their different accents. The reasons behind the choice of the situation presented in the text were diverse: (a) it makes reference to local culture (Portugal); (b) it is relevant to student's own experience (the television context); (c) it uses a credible situation (job as an English language narrator); and (d) it made it possible to use different speakers/accents, native and non-native. It was believed that this kind of activity could effectively provide students with concrete examples of international accents of English, at the same time it introduced students to some of the topics to be further discussed in the interview.

Question 1 presented a semantic differential scale in which the subjects' opinions about the candidates were based on five pairs of adjectives. In question 2, subjects were asked to put the candidates in order of who they most liked the sound of, whereas in question 3 they should put the candidates in order of who they most wanted to sound like. Finally, question 4 asked the subjects to try to guess the candidates' country of origin.

The purpose of this section was twofold. First, it aimed at providing real language use especially with some examples of international English. Second, although it focused on accents only, it served as a practical introduction to the more conceptual sections (Section III) of the questionnaire which dealt with a more comprehensive approach to EIL. The construction of this section was based on several studies. First, the contextualization of the recording was based on Dalton-Puffer et al. (1997). Second, using native as well as non-native speakers in the recordings was found in Chiba et al. (1995). Also, the use of a 5-point scale followed Flaitz (1993). Next, the question on ordering the speakers based on the subjects' preference was used in Forde (1995). Finally, the question on identifying the speakers' origin can be found in Forde (1995) and Dalton-Puffer et al. (1997).

Three speakers in the recording were taken from Trudgill & Hannah (2002): American English, British English, and Indian English. The other two speakers (Portuguese and Spanish) were chosen following the same parameters set by Trudgill and Hannah, i.e. a university-educated user of English, and were recorded reading the same text read by the three speakers from Trudgill & Hannah. The EFL Portuguese and Spanish speakers never lived in an English-speaking country. This fact seemed to be relevant as it showed the speakers might not have been influenced by native accents in native contexts other than the native teachers they might have had.

As far as the adjectives used in the semantic differential scale are concerned, first a list of adjectives used in several studies was made (Cooper & Fishman, 1975; Teck, 1983; Flaitz, 1993; Chiba et al., 1994; and Forde, 1995): *beautiful, rich, musical, precise, logical, pleasing to the ear, sophisticated, rhythmical, refined, colourful, intimate, superior, pure, soothing, graceful, sacred, clear, with accent, confident, friendly, elegant, fluent, skilled, intelligent, sophisticated, careful, easy to understand, well-educated, good at English, formal, soft, slow, pleasurable, perfect, intelligible, important, natural, standard, native-like*, among others. Next, another list was prepared with some adjectives taken from an online word search (*accent*) at the site of the Cobuild Bank of English (concordance and collocations).

However, many of these adjectives had been used in the above mentioned studies to show the subjects' attitudes toward the speaker and not the language. Thus, a final list

of adjectives was chosen based on the fact that they could be applied to the subjects' attitudes towards the language used by the five speakers and that they could also be translated into Portuguese maintaining their meaning: *pleasing to the ear, no accent, sophisticated, graceful, refined, colourful, clear, friendly, funny, elegant, careful, easy to understand, intelligible, polished, natural* and *formal*. As some of them are synonymous, the list was narrowed down to the following five pairs of adjectives: friendly/unfriendly, clear/unclear, polished/rough, no accent/strong accent, not funny/funny¹².

The hypothesis in Section I is that students would value the native accents (AmE and BrE) more positively than the ESL and EFL accents, thus showing a more linguacentred attitude towards English (see sections 2.2.1 and 2.7). It was also expected that they would be able to identify the origin of the native speakers and of the Portuguese speaker based on the expected familiarity with the English used by these speakers (see section 2.3).

3.6.1.2.2. Section II

This section of the questionnaire provides information about the four variables proposed: variable 1 (university students vs. polytechnic students) in question 1; variable 2 (ESP students vs. Teacher Trainees) in question 2; variable 3 (length of time studying English) in question 3; and variable 4 (spending time outside Portugal) in question 4.

3.6.1.2.3. Section III

This section tries to identify the students' attitudes toward some of the most important characteristics of EIL (see Chapter 2 and section 3.3):

- Question 1 focuses on students' motivation towards learning English.
 - Question 2 tries to identify the students' attitude toward ownership of English.
- The "a" statements in each pair reflect an approach which emphasizes native

¹² The Portuguese translation of 'funny' referred to its meaning as 'peculiar', not as something 'comic' or 'hilarious'.

communities and native speakers while statements “b” are more in tune with the idea of English as an international language.

- Question number 3 hopes to identify the students’ goal in speaking English. Options “a” to “d” could be understood as a desire to follow a native model whereas options “e” and “f” emphasize communicative competence not having a native-like target of language use.
- Question number 4 is similar to question 3 but this time it tries to identify the students’ goal in writing in English. Options “a” to “d” show an objective to write as native speakers do whereas option “e” emphasizes communicative competence not having a native-like target of language use.
- Question 5 focuses on the importance of native and non-native teachers. Options “b”, “c” and “d” identify a more positive view toward non-native teachers, more in accordance with the idea of EIL. This question is supplemented with an open question asking students to explain their choice of answer.
- Question 6 identifies the subjects’ attitudes towards cultural aspects in learning English. It is believed that while “a”, “b” and “c” emphasize native cultures, “d”, “e”, “f” and “g” present cultural aspects as part of the teaching and learning of EIL.
- Question 7 shows how students see their own English. While choosing “a”, “b” or “c” indicates a strong link to a native model, choosing “d” shows that students accept their own way of using the language.
- Question 8 is an open ended question about the importance of consistency in using just one language variety (e.g. AmE, BrE) or the possibility of mixing them.
- Question 9 asks students about their familiarity with some varieties of English. Items “a” and “b” refer to knowledge of the most common native varieties used in ELT (AmE and BrE) whereas items “c”, “d” and “e” indicate other native varieties as well as non-native varieties and EFL accents. In this question, subjects can choose more than one option.
- Question 10 tries to identify the subjects’ attitudes towards learning English. All sentences were related in some way to characteristics of EIL. The fact that

students might agree or disagree with them will show whether their opinions are closer to the concept of EIL or not.

- Finally, question 11 focuses on the subjects' opinion about the role of native speakers. Statements "b" in both pairs correspond to a more international approach to ELT than the "a" statements.

3.6.1.3. The questionnaire piloting

The piloting of the students' questionnaire was done with 23 subjects of the 2nd and 4th years of the B.A. in English/Portuguese Teacher Training course of the University of Evora. After the piloting, some changes were made to the questionnaire such as the choice of adjectives in question 1, Section I; rephrasing questions (e.g. question 4, Section II); rearranging the order of statements in question 1, Section III; rearranging question 4, Section II. Twelve questions were annexed to the questionnaire asking students about the length, level of difficulty and layout of the questionnaire and the questions' clarity, ambiguity and appropriateness. Few questions were said to be unclear, ambiguous or difficult and the general appearance, length and level of difficulty were seen positively.

3.6.2. The teachers' questionnaire

3.6.2.1. The questionnaire variables

Five variables are considered in the teachers' questionnaire: (1) university vs. polytechnic affiliation, (2) experience in teaching English in Portugal (teachers of ESP vs. teacher trainers), (3) native teachers vs. non-native teachers, (4) length of time teaching English, and (5) spending time outside Portugal (in English speaking or non-English speaking countries).

First, as in the students' questionnaire, the teacher's affiliation may explain some possible differences in the results due to the objectives in teacher training of both institutions as they train teachers to different school levels (see section 3.6.1.1). Second, it is believed that teachers may have different attitudes toward EIL when teaching ESP

students or teacher trainees. Then, native and non-native teachers may possess different attitudes toward learning and teaching English. Moreover, the number of years teaching the language seems to be important to be analysed because teachers with longer experience may have become familiar with other English varieties and English speaking and non-English speaking cultures and may have incorporated them into their classes. Finally, teachers who may have spent some time outside Portugal, in English speaking or non-English speaking countries, may tend to have a more international approach to teaching English.

A total of 26 teachers answered the questionnaire. The following are the frequencies and percentages of subjects in each of the variables:

A. Variable 1: Affiliation

65.4% (N=17) of the subjects were university teachers while 34.6% (N=9) were polytechnic teachers. Table 3.5 shows the frequency and percentage of subjects in each institution.

School					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	UE	7	26.9	26.9	26.9
	UL	10	38.5	38.5	65.4
	ST	6	23.1	23.1	88.5
	SE	3	11.5	11.5	100.0
	Total	26	100.0	100.0	

Table 3.5: Subjects’ affiliation (teachers)

B. Variable 2: Experience in teaching English in Portugal (ESP teachers vs. Teacher Trainers)

Three groups of teachers were identified: (a) those who have taught in teacher training courses only (11.5%, N=3); (b) those who have taught in ESP courses only (46.2%, N=12), and (c) those who have taught in both teacher training and ESP courses (42.3%, N=11).

C. Variable 3: Native teachers vs. non-native teachers

69.2% (N=18) of the teacher subjects were non-native speakers while 30.8% (N=8) were native speakers of English.

D. Variable 4: Length of time teaching English

42.3% (N=11) of the subjects have been teaching English for more than 20 years; 30.8% (N=8) have been teaching for 11 to 20 years; and 26.9% (N=7) have been teaching for 1 to 10 years.

E. Variable 5: Spending time outside Portugal

92.3% (N=24) of the subjects reported having spent some time outside Portugal. Table 3.6 presents the frequency and percentage of the subjects who spent time in ESCs and NESCs.

Spending time outside Portugal					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	The teacher has been to an ESC	11	42.3	45.8	45.8
	The teacher has been to a NESC	1	3.8	4.2	50.0
	The teacher has been to both ESC and NESC	12	46.2	50.0	100.0
	Total	24	92.3	100.0	
Missing	System	2	7.7		
Total		26	100.0		

Table 3.6: Spending time in an ESC or a NESC (teachers)

However, due to the small number in the second category (the teacher has been to a NESC), only the other two categories were used for statistical analysis.

3.6.2.2. The questionnaire structure

The teachers’ questionnaire consisted of two parts (see Appendix 3.4). Section I focused on information about the five variables of the questionnaire and Section II presented twelve questions aiming at gathering information about the teachers’ attitudes toward

the English language, the role of teachers, culture learning, etc. Native speakers of English answered an English version of the questionnaire while the Portuguese nationals answered a Portuguese language version. Later on, the questionnaire data in Portuguese were translated into English and analyzed (see also section 3.6.2.1 for the questionnaire variables).

3.6.2.2.1. Section I

Section I of the questionnaire provides information about the five variables proposed: variable 1 (university teachers vs. polytechnic teachers) in question 1; variable 2 (ESP teachers vs. Teacher Trainers) in questions 3 and 4; variable 3 (native vs. non-native teachers) in question 2; variable 4 (length of teaching experience) in question 5; and variable 5 (spending time outside Portugal) in question 6.

3.6.2.2.2. Section II

This section tries to identify the teachers' opinions and beliefs about several aspects related to EIL (see Chapter 2 and section 3.3)

:

- Question 1 deals with the teachers' daily use of the English language.
- Question 2 tries to identify the subjects' attitude toward ownership of English. The "a" statements in each pair reflect an approach which emphasizes native communities and native speakers while statements "b" are more in tune with the idea of English as an international language.
- Question 3 shows how teachers see their own English. While choosing "a", "b" or "c" indicates a strong link to a native model, the choice of option "d" shows that they accept their own way of using the language. Although this question seems to be more relevant to non-native teachers, it also aims at pointing out an overall account of the language varieties used by the subjects.
- Question 4 is an open ended question about the importance of consistency in using just one language variety (e.g. AmE or BrE) or the possibility of mixing them.

- Question number 5 hopes to identify teachers' expectations as far as their students' goals in speaking English are concerned. Options "a" to "d" could be understood as a desire to follow a native model whereas options "e" and "f" emphasize communicative competence not having a native-like target of language use. This question is supplemented with an open ended question where teachers are asked if their expectations would be different if they had ESP students or teacher trainees.
- Question number 6 is similar to the previous question. It hopes to identify the teachers' expectations about their students' goals in writing in English. Options "a" to "d" show an objective to write as native speakers do while option "e", emphasizes communicative competence not having a native-like target of language use. Like question 5, this question is supplemented with an open question asking teachers if they would have different expectations if their students were ESP students or teacher trainees.
- Question 7 focuses on the importance of native and non-native teachers. Options "b", "c" and "d" identify a more positive view toward non-native teachers, more in accordance with the idea of EIL. This question is supplemented with an open question asking teachers to explain their choice of answer.
- Question 8 identifies the subjects' attitudes towards cultural aspects in teaching English. While "a", "b" and "c" emphasize native cultures, "d", "e", "f" and "g" present cultural aspects as part of the teaching and learning of EIL. Teachers are also given some space to add comments to this question.
- Question 9 is an open ended question about the differences between teaching cultural aspects to ESP students or teacher trainees.
- Question 10 asks teachers about their familiarity with some varieties of English. Items "a" and "b" refer to knowledge of the most common native varieties used in ELT (AmE and BrE) whereas items "c", "d" and "e" indicate other native varieties as well as non-native varieties and EFL accents. In this question, subjects can choose more than one option.
- Question 11 tries to identify the subjects' attitudes toward non-native speakers learning English. All sentences are somehow related to some characteristics of EIL. Teachers were given some space to add comments to this question.

- Finally, question 12 focuses on the subjects' opinion about the role of native speakers. Statements "b" in both pairs are closer to a more international approach to ELT than the "a" statements.

3.6.2.3. The questionnaire piloting

The piloting of the teachers' questionnaire was done with two teachers at the University of Evora, one a native speaker of English and the other a Portuguese native. Both teach ESP in several courses and English Language in a teacher-training course. Even though there were only two subjects in the piloting, they were able to provide some interesting remarks about the questionnaire. Based on the teachers' comments some changes were made to the questionnaire such as rephrasing directions and answers (e.g. question 6, Section I; questions 4, 5, 7 and 9, Section II); providing space to explain the answers (e.g. questions 8 and 11, Section II); and rearranging question 6, Section II. Similar to the piloting of the students' questionnaire, twelve questions were annexed to the questionnaire asking subjects about the length, level of difficulty and layout of the questionnaire and the questions' clarity, ambiguity and appropriateness. However, their comments showed a positive response to these items.

3.7. The interviews in the study

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with ten students (5 teacher trainees/5 ESP students; 6 university students/4 polytechnic students) and twelve teachers (5 teacher trainers/7 ESP teachers; 6 university lecturers/6 polytechnic lecturers) who had previously answered the questionnaires and had volunteered for the interviews. Each interview lasted one hour on average. The interviews were conducted in Portuguese with Portuguese speakers and in English with English speakers. All interviews were later transcribed and the quotations from the interviews conducted in Portuguese which were to be used in the study were translated into English by the researcher making sure the original ideas were not misrepresented.

On the one hand, there was a set of topics to be discussed (see Appendices 3.5 – students' interview – and 3.6 – teachers' interview) and on the other hand, the interviewer would raise and develop new issues during the interview. Basically, the

interviews aimed at supplementing the findings of the questionnaires. It was hoped that these face-to-face interviews could provide more detailed and richer data and reliable means to validate the questionnaire data (see Appendix 3.7 for a sample of an interview transcription).

The students' interview was divided into two parts. Before engaging in the discussion of the topics previously identified as central to the identification of the subjects' attitudes toward EIL, students were asked to react to a video recording of six different speakers of English. The aim of this activity was twofold. Firstly, it seemed to be an appropriate introduction to the discussion about the subjects' opinions and beliefs on using and learning English. Secondly, instead of talking about abstract considerations of the English language, it provided students with real examples of English varieties thus facilitating the subjects' reactions toward them and the discussion of their concrete experiences with the language.

3.7.1. The video activity

Nine different speakers of English (2 ENL, 2 ESL and 5 EFL) were videoed talking about the English language. Each footage lasted one minute on average and as they were told about the topic of the speech a few minutes before the recording took place, there was no rehearsal nor was any type of written support used. The objective was to capture real and unprepared language use. However, due to the limited amount of time that this activity was to last in the interviews (from 15 to 20 minutes), only six speakers were chosen (2 ENL, 2 ESL and 2 EFL; three females and three males) with age ranging from 25 to 56 years old. The video activity in the students' interview consisted in the following steps:

Step A: Listening to speaker (the interviewee listens to the speaker – no video watching – and answers the following questions)

Question 1: gender

What is the gender of the speaker?

Question 2: approximate age

How old approximately do you think the speaker is?

Question 3: country of origin/nationality *or* native/ESL/EFL speaker

Where do you think the speaker is from? Why?

Is it a native, an ESL or EFL speaker? Why?

Step B: Watching the video/listening to speaker

Step C: Discussion of answers to questions in step A (the interviewee confirms or changes the answers given in step A)

Step D: Discussion of real data about the speaker (the interviewer reveals information about the speaker – gender, age and nationality – and asks the interviewee about how his/her opinions about the speaker were formed or modified during the activity, especially regarding the speaker's use of English – Question 3 in Step A)

3.7.2. The interview piloting

Due to the limited availability of the volunteers, the piloting of the interviews could be applied to the first and, to a certain extent, the second interviews for each group (students and teachers). More specifically, these first interviews helped the researcher to identify areas which needed some minor adjustments. For instance, the number of speakers presented in the video activity in the students' interview was changed from eight to six due to the researcher's feeling that the activity itself was becoming repetitive and consequently, the interviewee started showing signs of being unmotivated. Moreover, the reduction of speakers presented in the video activity became necessary because it seemed to be using too much time in an interview which was aimed and agreed between the interviewer and the interviewee to last about one hour. Finally, these piloting interviews helped the researcher identify more clear and efficient ways to approach the central issues of the interview such as asking more direct questions in some situations or building up the idea from more general to more specific questions.

3.8. Documentary analysis in the study

This research aimed at carrying out a thorough and substantial analysis of the current ELT educational policies in Portugal and classroom materials used in basic and

secondary schools. Eleven documents, 31 books (textbooks, workbooks, teacher's books and pupil's booklets reaching almost 3,800 pages) and seven audio cassettes/CDs were examined.

3.8.1. ELT in basic and secondary school educational policies

The documents analysed refer to the educational reforms of 1991 and 2002. The choice of documents related to both reforms was based on the following reasons. First, as the application of the policies and guidelines established in the 2002 reform is being done according to a schedule of one school year per academic year in both basic and secondary schools, in the academic year of 2002/2003 only Years 7, 8 and 10 were following the guidelines of the 2002 reform. The remaining years (9, 11 and 12) still used the syllabi proposed in the 1991 reform. Second, because the subjects in the questionnaires and interviews have expressed not only their present attitudes and beliefs toward learning and teaching English but also their educational and professional experience in the past decade, that is, the years after the 1991 reform.

The analysis of the national ELT policies focused on the identification of aspects of EIL previously identified in this research (see Chapter 2 and section 3.3). Essentially, it tried to establish the extent to which these documents have identified and developed issues concerning the global scope of English.

The following documents published by the Ministry of Education were analysed:

- A. Guidelines to Syllabi Implementation: English – Years 10, 11 and 12. (1995a)
- B. English Programme – Continuation Level, FL1. (1995b)
- C. English Programme, 3rd *ciclo* – Continuation Level, FL1. (1995c)
- D. Guidelines to Syllabi Implementation, Beginners Level and Continuation Level, Foreign Language (FL) 1 and Foreign Language (FL) 2: English – Years 10, 11 and 12. (1998)
- E. Comprehensive Law on the Education System – Law 46/86, 14 October. (1999)
- F. Basic Education National Curriculum: Essential Competences. (2001a)
- G. Basic Education Curriculum Reorganization: Principles, Measures and Implications – Decree-law 6/2001. (2001b)

- H. English Language Programme: Years 10, 11 and 12 (Continuation level). (2003a)
- I. English Language Programme: Years 10, 11 and 12 (Beginners level). (2003b)
- J. Guidelines for the Curriculum Reorganization of Secondary Education. (2003c)
- K. Curricula: Scientific-Humanistic courses and Technological courses. (2003d)

3.8.2. Classroom materials

Several textbooks and some of their supplementary material, such as teacher's book, audio cassettes, workbook, etc. were analysed (see Appendix 3.8). These materials were chosen based on the following criteria:

1. Some should represent materials written after the 1991 Reform while others should have been written in accordance with the 2001 and 2002 reforms. Bearing that in mind and following Verma and Mallick's (1999:113) consideration of sampling documents (see section 3.4.5), a particular time frame was set with the 'start' year of 1998 and the 'end' year of 2003;
2. They should cover all years in the 3rd *ciclo* (Years 7, 8 and 9) and the secondary levels (Years 10, 11 and 12). The 2nd *ciclo* (Years 5 and 6) was intentionally left out because it is believed that due to the elementary level of teaching in these years, very little could be found in terms of EIL representation (i.e. AmE/BrE, other native varieties, ESL varieties, EFL accents, ENL/ESL/EFL cultures, etc.)
3. They should be representative of the most influential ELT publishers in Portugal as far as their penetration in basic and secondary schools are concerned. Accordingly, one British and five Portuguese publishing houses were chosen. However, it was not possible to get data or statistics about the distribution of textbooks in Portugal. Several publishers were contacted via e-mail or telephone but only the representative from Oxford University Press replied.

Essentially, the analysis of the textbooks and the supplementary material focused on the identification of aspects of EIL previously identified in this research. This analysis tried to establish the extent to which these textbooks have incorporated and developed issues related to the international scope of English.

3.9. Reliability, validity and objectivity

According to Mertens (1998:89), three standards have emerged from the postpositivist paradigm for judging the quality of quantitative research measurements: *reliability*, *validity* and *objectivity*. Conversely, the parallel criteria from the interpretive/constructivist paradigm collection of qualitative data are *dependability*, *credibility*, and *confirmability* (287). Padgett (1998:89), citing Hammersley (1992) proposes that the postpositivist position argues for a separate but parallel set of criteria exclusive to qualitative research as it should emulate the scientific method in striving for *empirical groundedness*, *generalizability*, and *minimization of bias*.

3.9.1. Reliability

Reliability is indicated by the extent to which measurement instruments are free from error (Mertens, 1998:287). In its broadest sense, reliability is an indication of consistency between two measures of the same thing. The two measures could be two separate instruments: two like halves of one instrument, the same instrument applied on two occasions, or the same instrument administered by two different persons (Black, 1999:195). This study has attempted to increase instrument reliability by enhancing some factors that influence reliability identified by Black (1999:197-198) such as (a) sufficient numbers of questions or identifiable components of responses for sets of questions that constitute the operational definition of a construct; (b) quality of wording of questions; and (c) time allowed and time needed.

Moreover, this study contemplated other references to reliability in quantitative and qualitative methods. According to Cohen et al. (2000:117), reliability in quantitative research is essentially a synonym for consistency and replicability over time, over instruments and over groups of respondents. However, criteria of reliability in quantitative methodologies differ from those in qualitative methodologies in that the reliability of qualitative methodology includes fidelity to real life, context and situation-specificity, authenticity, comprehensiveness, detail, honesty, depth of response and meaningfulness to the respondents (120).

3.9.2. Validity

Mertens (1998:291-292) defines the validity of an instrument as the extent to which it measures what it is intended to measure. In practice, however, the author suggests that the validity of an instrument is assessed in relation to which evidence can be generated that supports the claim that the instrument measures attributes targeted in the proposed research. Moreover, as surveys rely on individuals' self-reports of their knowledge, attitudes, or behaviours, the validity of the information is contingent on the honesty of the respondent (105).

Cohen et al. (2000:105) state that in qualitative data, validity might be addressed through the honesty, depth, richness and scope of the data achieved, the participants approached, the extent of triangulation and the disinterestedness or objectivity of the researcher. On the other hand, in quantitative data, validity might be improved through careful sampling, appropriate instrumentation and appropriate statistical treatments of the data.

Cohen et al. (121) also observe that perhaps the most practical way of achieving greater validity in qualitative data is to minimize the amount of bias as much as possible. The sources of bias are the characteristics of the interviewer, the characteristics of the respondent, and the substantive content of the questions. However, Cohen et al. (123), citing Hitchcock & Hughes (1989), observe that if the researchers are known to the interviewees and their peers, however powerful, then a degree of reciprocity might be taking place, with interviewees giving answers that they think the researchers might want to hear.

Broadly, this study attempted to enhance the validity of the instruments used by adhering to the above mentioned features. The following types of validity played a central role in the study: construct and content validity and internal and external validity.

3.9.2.1. Construct validity and content validity

To establish construct validity, the researcher would need to be assured that his/her construct of a particular issue agreed with other constructions of the same underlying

issue. This can be achieved through correlations with other measures of the issue or by rooting the construction in a wide literature search which teases out the meaning of a particular construct and its constituent elements (Cohen et al., 2000:110).

To establish content validity, the researcher needs to review the items or tasks in the measurement instrument to determine the degree to which they represent the sample of the behaviour domain of interest in the research study (Mertens, 1998:294). The researcher must ensure that the elements of the main issue to be covered in the research are both a fair representation of the wider issue under investigation (and its weighting) and that the elements chosen for the research sample are themselves addressed in depth and breadth (Cohen et al. 2000:109-110).

3.9.2.2. Internal validity and external validity

Internal validity seeks to demonstrate that the explanation of a particular event, issue or set of data which a piece of research provides can actually be sustained by the data. In some degree this concerns accuracy, which can be applied to quantitative and qualitative research. The findings must accurately describe the phenomena being researched (Cohen et al., 2000:107).

External validity refers to the degree to which the results can be generalized to the wider population, cases or situations. Schofield (1993:200) suggests that it is important in qualitative research to provide a clear, detailed and in-depth description so that others can decide the extent to which findings from one piece of research are generalizable to another situation (cited in Cohen et al., 2000:109).

3.9.3. Objectivity

Mertens (1998:298) declares that objectivity refers to how much the measurement instrument is open to influence by the beliefs and biases of the individuals who administer, score, or interpret it. Objectivity is determined by the amount of judgement that is called for in these three processes. More objective measures consist of short-answer, multiple-choice, and true-false format options. Less objective measure include

essay tests, although these can be made more objective by establishing criteria for analyzing the responses.

In this study, objectivity was stressed in both qualitative and quantitative methods. If on the one hand, most questions in the questionnaires aimed at an objective identification of the subjects' attitudes toward EIL, the researcher also attempted to prevent his bias and beliefs from influencing the administration of interviews and interpretation of qualitative data.

3.10. Limitations of the study

It seems quite essential to have further studies on attitudes towards EIL in non-native countries based on other research paradigms such as critical theory analysis and constructivism. As Guba & Lincoln (1994:108) point out, no construction is or can be incontrovertibly right. Pring (2000:56) offers a similar view when he states that understanding human beings, and thus researching into what they do and how they behave, calls upon many different methods, each making complex assumptions about what it means to explain behaviours and personal and social activities.

Methodologically, due to the nature of the study, a longitudinal approach would seem appropriate to compare possible changes in the students' and teachers' attitudes toward EIL. Moreover, the use of classroom observations could strengthen and enlarge the findings.

Although it was not in the scope of the present study, it would be relevant to identify and examine the attitudes of basic and secondary school students and teachers toward EIL in order to have a broader and more complete picture of the characteristics of ELT in Portugal today.

Finally, because of the limited number of subject teachers in the study (N=26), most of the findings of the quantitative data could only be treated through descriptive statistics. If there had been more subjects, inferential statistics could have been used so that it would be possible to infer from the sample the characteristics of the whole population from which the sample was taken (Opie, 2004:101).

3.11. Summary of chapter

This chapter covered the methodological issues of the study. Firstly, it attempted to demonstrate the considerable importance of the methodology employed as one of the prime contributions of the research. Secondly, it distinguished the diverse elements that help understand the methodology of the study as a whole: the research paradigm, the research questions, the reasons for using the methods of data collection and analysis, the subjects and documents in the study, a description of the methods employed – questionnaires, interviews and document analysis, the reliability, validity, objectivity and the limitations of the study.

The next chapter will start the investigation of the data collected by examining the findings from the documents analysed in the study.

Chapter 4: The theory of EIL in Portugal – what the documents advocate

4.1. Introduction

The purpose of chapter 4 is twofold. Firstly, it hopes to identify aspects of EIL in ELT in Portugal today through the analysis of the current basic and secondary education national policies. Secondly, it aims to examine how ELT materials have interpreted the national guidelines through the identification of references to varieties of English and native and non-native cultures.

This chapter also attempts to answer the first set of research questions, related to the theoretical aspects of EIL in Portugal identified in the policies implemented and the classroom materials used.

1. How do the current ELT national *policies* and *materials* for basic and secondary education in Portugal represent EIL?

1.a. Is the English taught/learned in Portugal today culturally attached to English-speaking communities or internationally oriented and ideologically neutral?

1.b. Is the English taught/learned in Portugal today linguistically centred on British English only or does it present characteristics of other varieties (American English or other native and non-native varieties)?

In essence, the documents examined depict EIL on different levels. First, the 1995 Syllabus for Basic and Secondary Education approaches EIL by emphasizing the two major English-speaking cultures – US and UK – and their standard varieties. Then, the 2001 Basic Education Curriculum stresses the intercultural function of the English language making reference to the cultures which use the target language. Lastly, the 2002 Secondary Education Syllabus introduces the concept of English as the world's lingua franca and the importance of referring to English native cultures in the ELT context.

In spite of this, the classroom materials studied did not reveal the same kind of approach to English as an international language. Basically, the materials emphasize BrE and

British culture with few references to other native and non-native varieties and cultures, with the exception of the culture of the US and its variety.

4.2. ELT syllabi

In this section, three documents are analysed: the 1995 English syllabus for the 2nd *ciclo*, 3rd *ciclo* and Secondary levels, the 2001 Basic Education National Curriculum and the 2002 Secondary School Educational Reform.

4.2.1. The 1995¹³ English syllabus for the 2nd *ciclo*, 3rd *ciclo* and Secondary levels

This syllabus was described by Saldanha (2001:108) as “a project of linguistic and cultural education providing contents and methodological guidelines”. In essence, it was conceived to incorporate the pedagogical aims of the educational reform of 1986 as far as the skills and competences to be developed in English and throughout all subjects are concerned. In addition, as an educational project, its aims encompassed individual and social education, the acquisition of essential knowledge and the fostering of responsible citizenship (Saldanha, 2001:110).

The team of authors of the English syllabus included not only experienced basic school and secondary school teachers but also university lecturers in English linguistics and Anglo-American culture. All these professionals worked in collaboration especially in the selection and organization of the content areas. Furthermore, a group of Portuguese and foreign consultants in English language, British culture, American culture and Methodology was created to cooperate with the team of authors of the syllabus.

The English syllabus was divided into five main parts – *Introduction, Aims, Objectives, Contents, Methodological Guidelines* – plus a *Glossary* and *Bibliography*. Although it presents a vast range of details and information, due to the focus of this research, the following analysis of the syllabus aims at identifying (a) references to the international scope of English, such as language varieties, mainly AmE and BrE, and their respective

¹³ Although most of the school subjects had the final version of their syllabi approved in 1991, the English syllabus was only approved for the academic year 1995/96 due to some problems identified in the experimentation phase.

cultures, (b) references to general ELT concepts which might be associated with EIL (see Chapter 2 and section 3.3), and (c) significant principles and beliefs expressed in the syllabus.

The levels analysed were 2nd *ciclo*, 3rd *ciclo* – Foreign Language (FL) I and FL II – and Secondary education – Continuation level, FL I and FL II. The syllabus for Secondary education – Initiation level did not seem relevant to this study because the number of students who start learning English at this stage is extremely low¹⁴. Even though the same could be said of English as the FL II introduced in the 3rd *ciclo*, the choice of including data from this level seemed to be appropriate for comparing with the syllabus for English as FL I.

The following sections present the analysis of the main parts of the syllabus (introduction, aims, objectives, contents and methodological guidelines), the teachers' reactions to the syllabus and the identification of EIL aspects in the syllabus.

4.2.1.1. The *Introduction*

One of the main concepts found in the introductory text is that the syllabus is based on three major assumptions. First, that language is a tool of expressing the *self* in terms of interpersonal and social relations and as a decisive factor of socialization and personal growth, it allows the individual (1) to develop awareness of the self and of others, (2) to express attitudes and values, (3) to gain knowledge and (4) to show his/her aptitudes. Second, that learning a foreign language is part of a dynamic process of construction of the *self* by creating opportunities for the development of written and oral communication skills, promoting reflection on the structure of the language (foreign and first), and by developing comprehension of and respect for different sociocultural contexts. And third, that the communicative approach seems to offer the necessary theoretical and practical guidelines to facilitate the implementation of the objectives identified in the teaching and learning of the foreign language.

¹⁴ This piece of information was obtained in an interview held in September 2003 with an officer of the Department of Secondary Education, Mrs. Analia Gomes, of the group responsible for the development of the English syllabus.

4.2.1.2. The Aims

Six aims were identified in the English syllabus. Essentially, they deal with pedagogical concepts such as the enhancement of critical thinking, learners’ autonomy, study skills, cognitive and affective skills and cooperation. However, two aims clearly identify the linguistic and social scope of the syllabus:

- to provide contact with other languages and cultures, ensuring the mastering of basic language knowledge and use;
- to further the development of linguistic and cultural identity through the contact with the foreign language and its culture(s).

4.2.1.3. The Objectives

The objectives are proposed at two levels. First, according to two content areas: (a) knowledge, and (b) attitudes, values, and skills. Second, according to the specific competences identified in the acquisition of communicative competence: linguistic competence, discourse competence, strategic competence, sociolinguistic competence, intercultural competence, and process competence. Based on these two levels, nine objectives were listed for the 2nd ciclo, 3rd ciclo and Secondary levels. Table 4.1 identifies three objectives related to the scope of this research, that is, the linguistic and sociocultural relevance of varieties of English and their respective cultures:

2nd ciclo	3rd ciclo	Secondary
To use the English language progressively acquiring its rules of use and usage	To use the English language progressively acquiring its rules of use and usage, with growing fluency and competence	To use the English language appropriately and fluently, revealing the acquisition of its rules of use and usage
To identify aspects of Anglo-American (Great Britain and United States) culture in the scope of the experiences proposed in this syllabus	To relate to Anglo-American (Great Britain and United States) culture, inquiring about diverse behaviour patterns in the scope of the experiences proposed in this syllabus	To interact with Anglo-American (Great Britain and United States) culture in the scope of the experiences proposed in this syllabus
To develop positive attitudes before different social and cultural contexts – the classmate(s), the teacher, the target culture(s) (Great Britain and United States)	To demonstrate, through sharing information, positive attitudes before different social and cultural contexts – the classmate(s), the teacher, the target culture(s) (Great Britain and United States)	To state, through the confrontation of ideas and beliefs, positive attitudes before different social and cultural contexts – the classmate(s), the teacher, the target culture(s) (Great Britain and United States)

Table 4.1: Some of the objectives proposed for the 2nd ciclo, 3rd ciclo and Secondary levels

It is worth observing how some verbs were used to identify the students' growing contact with the American and British cultures in the three educational levels proposed: *to identify* (2nd ciclo), *to relate to* (3rd ciclo) and *to interact with* (secondary) *Anglo-American culture* and *to develop* (2nd ciclo), *to demonstrate* (3rd ciclo) and *to state positive attitudes before different cultural contexts*.

4.2.1.4. The Contents

One of the levels proposed for the identification of the contents of the syllabus had to do with the six topics or subjects suggested for use in the language classroom: (1) the world of the student(s), (2) the world of the target cultures (Great Britain and United States), (3) the outcomes of the interaction between these two contexts, (4) the language of the target cultures, (5) the learning/teaching process and (6) the results of the learning/teaching process.

Accordingly, the syllabus identifies a *core theme* from which the contents are organized and then, a particular *area of experience* is proposed at each educational level (see Table 4.2).

<i>Core theme</i>	The world we live in		
<i>Area of experience</i>	2 nd ciclo	3 rd ciclo	Secondary
	Me and my community: places and people	Me and my extended community: organization and ways of interaction	Me, a citizen of my country, of Europe and of the world

Table 4.2: Core theme and areas of experience (2nd ciclo, 3rd ciclo and secondary levels)

Later on, the areas of experience are subdivided in five different content dimensions: (1) the English language, (2) interpretation and production of texts, (3) sociocultural, (4) attitudes, values and skills, and (5) extensive reading. Next, the syllabus explains and identifies the specific contents and objectives in each of the five content dimensions.

4.2.1.4.1. The content dimensions: topics and objectives

A. English Language

This content dimension was represented as the backbone and the core of the syllabus. In an attempt to provide a thorough description of its contents and objectives, several language categories were listed (*nouns, pronouns, determiners, adjectives, adverbs and adverbial phrases, prepositions and prepositional phrases, connectors and verbs*). Moreover, there were references to *sentence structure, punctuation and spelling* (2nd and 3rd ciclos), *pronunciation* (2nd and 3rd ciclos), *varieties of English*, and *the etymology of words* (3rd ciclo and secondary). However, among all those categories only *varieties of English* and *the etymology or words* identified objectives related to language varieties (AmE and BrE) and their cultures (see Table 4.3).

Content	Objectives (FL I)	
Varieties of English	Year 5	Year 6
	Recognizes differences between BrE and AmE in pronunciation, vocabulary and spelling	

Content	Objectives (FL I)		
Varieties of English	Year 7	Year 8	Year 9
	Recognizes differences between BrE and AmE in pronunciation, vocabulary and spelling	Recognizes and distinguishes differences between BrE and AmE in pronunciation, vocabulary and spelling	Distinguishes differences between BrE and AmE in pronunciation, vocabulary and spelling
			Identifies characteristics of ethnic dialects in AmE (Black English)
The etymology of words		Identifies contributions from other languages to the evolution of AmE (Native American, Spanish, French and Dutch words) ¹⁵	

Content	Objectives (FL II)		
Varieties of English	Year 7	Year 8	Year 9
	Recognizes differences between BrE and AmE in pronunciation, vocabulary and spelling		Recognizes and distinguishes differences between BrE and AmE in pronunciation, vocabulary and spelling

Content	Objectives (FL I)		
Varieties of English	Year 10	Year 11	Year 12
	Distinguishes differences between BrE and AmE in pronunciation, vocabulary, spelling and grammar	Classifies differences between BrE and AmE in pronunciation, vocabulary, spelling and grammar	

¹⁵ It is important to note that the examples of contributions from other languages provided in the syllabus are somewhat misleading. Some of the words mentioned such as *mocassin* (Native American), *mosquito* (Spanish), *voyager* (French), and *Santa Claus* (Dutch), are current words of the English lexicon, not just of AmE. In the same way, other examples such as *tepee* (Native American), *rancho* (Spanish), and *prairie* (French), may have entered the English language through AmE and may be largely used in the US because of historical, geographical and cultural reasons but certainly their use is now not limited to AmE. In short, although all these words have entered English through its American variety, they cannot be referred to as having contributed “to the evolution of AmE” only.

	Identifies regional and ethnic dialects (BrE/AmE)		
The etymology of words	Identifies contributions from other languages to the evolution of AmE (Native American, Spanish, French and Dutch words)	Identifies contributions from other languages to the evolution of AmE (Native American, Spanish, French and Dutch words) and words introduced to express new ideas	
		Identifies Americanisms	Identifies Americanisms, metaphorical uses of adjectives and grammatical deviations ¹⁶

Content	Objectives (FL II)		
Varieties of English	Year 10	Year 11	Year 12
	Distinguishes differences between BrE and AmE in pronunciation, vocabulary and spelling	Distinguishes and classifies differences between BrE and AmE in pronunciation, vocabulary, spelling and grammar	
		Identifies regional and ethnic dialects (BrE/AmE)	
The etymology of words		Identifies contributions from other languages to the evolution of AmE (Native American, Spanish, French and Dutch words) and words introduced to express new ideas	
		Identifies Americanisms	Identifies Americanisms and grammatical deviations

Table 4.3: Some of the contents and objectives of the English Language component proposed for the 2nd ciclo, 3rd ciclo and Secondary levels

The Guidelines to Syllabi Implementation

In 1998, the Department of Secondary Education published a brochure called Guidelines to Syllabi Implementation (GSI). Fundamentally, this document aimed at “facilitating the implementation of the different English syllabi in the secondary level” (1), helping teachers manage the different contents and objectives of Years 10, 11 and 12. In other words, it did not replace nor did it add new information to the current syllabi but tried to rearrange, simplify and identify the essential contents and objectives.

In the content area of the English language for Years 10 and 11, the GSI referred to the extensive list of grammatical items presented in the syllabus and proposed a shorter list of essential items to be considered not as the only materials to be taught but the most central ones, a sort of core curriculum. However, although this new list seemed to cover

¹⁶ Some examples of Americanisms provided are *bookstore*, *cash and carry*, *junk food*, *to guess* (*to believe*), and *to reckon* (*to think*). However, these examples do not seem to help explain Americanisms. While the word *bookstore* can somehow be understood as an American alternative for *bookshop* (even though *bookstore* is acceptable in BrE), the same cannot be said of *cash and carry*, *junk food*, *to guess* (*to believe*), and *to reckon* (*to think*). Although these words might have entered the lexicon of English through the US, they are now part of the standard variety of the language without being considered characteristics of one specific variety.

most of the categories identified in the syllabus such as *nouns, pronouns, determiners, prepositions and prepositional phrases, connectors, verbs and sentence structure*, there was no reference at all to *varieties of English* and *the etymology of words*. In short, the new list of essential grammatical items left out any reference to the differences between AmE and BrE and to characteristics of the American variety of the language.

On the other hand, even though there was a clear reduction of contents and objectives for Year 12, the content area *varieties of English* was kept with the following objectives: for FL I, students should be able to *classify differences between BrE and AmE*, and for FL II, students should be able to *distinguish and classify differences between BrE and AmE*. A possible explanation for the inclusion of these objectives in the core curriculum is that the core theme for Year 12 is developed around American culture and British culture in the Sociocultural and Extensive Reading content dimensions.

B. Interpretation and Production of Texts

This content dimension aimed at the learner’s development of communicative skills and was divided into four sections, each one relating to one of the four language learning skills – listening, speaking, reading and writing.

B.1. Listening and Speaking

Basically, there were only references to phonological characteristics of AmE and BrE. Table 4.4 identifies some of the contents and objectives in the listening and speaking skills.

Content	Objectives	
Listening/Speaking	Year 5	Year 6
	Recognizes variations in the pronunciation of the same phoneme (BrE and AmE)	

Content	Objectives (FL I)		
Listening/Speaking	Year 7	Year 8	Year 9
	Recognizes variations in the pronunciation of the same phoneme (BrE and AmE)	Recognizes and distinguishes variations in the pronunciation of the same phoneme (BrE e AmE)	

Content	Objectives (FL II)		
	Year 7	Year 8	Year 9
Listening	Recognizes variations in the pronunciation of the same phoneme (BrE and AmE)		Recognizes and distinguishes variations in the pronunciation of the same phoneme (BrE and AmE)

Content	Objectives (FL II)		
	Year 7	Year 8	Year 9
Speaking	Recognizes variations in the pronunciation of the same phoneme (BrE and AmE)	Recognizes and distinguishes variations in the pronunciation of the same phoneme (BrE e AmE)	

Content	Objectives (FL II) ¹⁷		
	Year 10	Year 11	Year 12
Speaking	Recognizes and distinguishes similar phonemes and variations in the pronunciation of the same phoneme (BrE and AmE)		

Table 4.4: Some of the contents and objectives of the Listening and Speaking skills proposed for the 2nd ciclo, 3rd ciclo and Secondary levels

B.2. Reading and writing

No references were made to vocabulary, spelling or grammatical differences between BrE and AmE as far as the reading and writing skills are concerned.

C. The sociocultural dimension

This section identifies the topics and subtopics to be developed in the classroom built around the following central theme – an extension of the *area of experience* proposed for each level:

2 nd ciclo	Me and my community: places and people <i>vs.</i> places and people in Anglo-American (Great Britain and Unites States) communities
3 rd ciclo	Me and my extended community: organization and ways of interaction <i>vs.</i> organization and ways of interaction in Anglo-American (Great Britain and United States) communities
Secondary	Me, a citizen of my country, of Europe and of the world: my world <i>vs.</i> other worlds – life styles and structures

Table 4.5: Classroom topics and subtopics

¹⁷ There were no such references for FL I in Years 10, 11 and 12

Besides identifying the general objective of the sociocultural dimension – the student should be able *to characterize his/her sociocultural context and the sociocultural context of others: the classmate(s), the teacher and the target culture(s)* – this section also makes references to specific objectives of the sociocultural dimension:

- to compare and contrast social conventions and stereotypes
- to show empathy to different ways of being and living
- to recognize similarities and differences between his/her sociocultural context and the sociocultural context of others (Years 5 and 6)
- to recognize specific cultural patterns of different contexts (Years 7, 8 and 9)
- to become acquainted with the concept of diversity as fundamental to the identification of sociocultural domains (Years 7, 8 and 9)

Since in Year 12 English is an optional subject of the specific or technical components of general and technological courses, the sociocultural contents proposed for Year 12 were designed in a way to privilege the historical and literary dimensions of American and British cultures. Consequently, the sociocultural dimension is divided in four parts, namely British Culture A, British Culture B, American Culture A and American Culture B.

D. The other dimensions: *attitudes, values and skills* and *extensive reading*

In these two content dimensions, there is only a brief reference to the specific content of *the world of the target culture(s)*. There were no objectives related to AmE/BrE or to cultural aspects of these two communities.

Moreover, in *extensive reading* for Years 7, 8 and 9, there is one objective which makes reference to the target cultures: *to build his/her cultural awareness when interacting with the text by identifying and comparing sociocultural references (his/her culture and the target culture)*.

4.2.1.5. The Methodological guidelines

This section was divided in two parts: (1) some suggestions for curriculum development and (2) evaluation.

4.2.1.5.1. Some suggestions for curriculum development

In this section of the syllabus, it was possible to find some allusions to the central issues of this research such as native cultures and native speakers. First of all, it seems relevant to observe some comments made on the importance of the students' experiences outside the classroom and the school as significant contexts of language learning and cultural awareness:

The teacher should provide the students with the necessary means (...) to add to their learning knowledge and skills acquired not only in other school subjects but also in their experiences outside the classroom and the school, mainly the information received through the 'parallel school', whose role is quite meaningful in terms *of the language and the Anglo-American (Great Britain and US) sociocultural contexts*.

Second, some emphasis was also put in the relevance of the communicative approach to the achievement of the objectives of the syllabus: "The concept of communicative competence (...) privileges pair work and group work (...) as they make it possible to experiment with *the daily contexts of the native speakers of the language*".

Next, the relationship between Portuguese culture and the target cultures was explained:

The learning of the English language (...) implies an intercultural approach in which students use their own language and culture to *discover the language and cultures of the English speaking countries (Great Britain and US)* (...) Furthermore, by *contrasting their own and the English speaking cultures (Great Britain and US)*, they can better understand both and thus, develop an attitude of tolerance and respect towards difference.

Finally, teachers have their attention called to "*the advantages of using the resources of native speakers and/or people who have had significant contact with English speaking countries*" in the classroom as one of the several ways of fulfilling the objectives set in the syllabus.

4.2.1.5.2. Evaluation

The only reference in this section to the language and culture of Great Britain and the United States was made to reinforce the central position of these countries in the expected knowledge and skills of the teachers. The text calls attention to the fact that the language classes should be based on teachers' "scientific and pedagogical knowledge of the language and culture of the English speaking countries (Great Britain and US)".

4.2.1.6. Teachers' reactions to the English syllabus

In her analysis of the Educational Reform of 1986 and the implementation of the English syllabus in secondary schools, Saldanha (2001) tried to identify some of the major concerns among English teachers as they struggled to apply the new syllabus. Besides examining a number of documents, Saldanha interviewed one of the authors of the syllabus and two secondary school English teachers. As a result, two aspects of the syllabus were considered negative: length and level of complexity. First, it was believed that there were too many items which made it difficult to manage in one school year. Second, the contents and objectives presented a high level of complexity, especially in the sociocultural dimension. Basically, they did not suit the real students in the classrooms, their age levels, cultural background and linguistic competence. In other words, it seemed that some topic areas proposed were difficult to teach because students did not have the linguistic and cultural knowledge to be able to successfully deal with them.

Moreover, teachers saw the syllabus as a prescriptive document and as such they believed they were expected to follow and teach the whole syllabus. One of the teachers interviewed by Saldanha reported on the lack of directions in the syllabus:

The syllabus... we just cover a tiny part of it. If you consider what's in the syllabus as something serious and that should be taught, but as many times I heard the authors themselves say that not everything there was supposed to be taught, that they were suggestions of approaches... But if they're just suggestions of approaches, it should be clear there. Otherwise, you don't know what's a suggestion and what's mandatory (141).

As time went by, teachers and students became less and less motivated. Saldanha (150-151) believed that the syllabus was too ambitious. For her, the topics in the sociocultural dimension were too heavy and ended up giving language learning a secondary role in the classroom. The amount of criticism clearly meant that teachers had

not fully understood or accepted this syllabus. It was just a matter of time until a new syllabus would have to be created. Not surprisingly, an educational reform for the secondary level would be proposed in 2000 and in 2001 the basic education national curriculum would be reorganized.

4.2.1.7. EIL and the 1995 English syllabus

After a thorough analysis of the 1995 English syllabus, it becomes quite clear that it emphasizes both American and British cultures and, to some extent, AmE and BrE. In several parts of the syllabus are references to cultures of the US and UK and AmE and BrE. Significantly, some of the aims (see section 4.2.1.2) to be accomplished make reference to the student's contact with other languages and cultures through English. Possibly, this can be regarded as one of the statements in the syllabus that stresses the international role of the English language.

In contrast, some objectives (see section 4.2.1.3) refer to the student's identification and interaction with elements of American and British cultures (target cultures). A similar approach to the cultures of the US and UK can be found in some of the contents (see section 4.2.1.4) proposed, which also emphasized the language of the target cultures and the culture of the student. It is quite significant that the syllabus attaches great value to Portuguese culture and language as a way to discover the language and cultures of the US and UK and to develop an attitude of tolerance and respect towards difference, as many proponents of TEIL acknowledge the essential role of the local culture and language in the English language classroom (see section 2.7).

The target cultures are also emphasized in the syllabus through the recognition of their influence in the students' daily lives, and through the use of native speakers in the language classes. Nevertheless, explicit references to the American and British varieties of English are infrequent. In the proposed content for 'Listening and Speaking' skills, there are brief references to pronunciation features of AmE and BrE in Years 7, 8 and 9, and in the content listed for the 'English Language', there are a few suggestions concerning the differences between both varieties.

However, the fact that the 1998 Guidelines to Syllabi Implementation removed all references to differences between AmE and BrE from all years except Year 12 may indicate that these linguistic features were viewed as secondary elements in ELT. If this is true, it might definitely have affected students' and teachers' awareness of fundamental concepts of English as an international language.

In sum, the 1995 English syllabus seems to have incorporated some of the fundamental principles when approaching English as an international language such as the influence of AmE and BrE and their respective cultures (see section 2.2), English as a tool for cross-cultural communication (see section 2.3) and the role of the local culture and language (see section 2.7).

4.2.2. The 2001 Basic Education National Curriculum – Essential Competences

The Basic Education National Curriculum presents a set of fundamental competences in the national curriculum. It includes the *general competences* to be developed throughout basic education as well as the *specific competences* to each subject and subject area such as, Portuguese Language, Foreign Languages, Mathematics, History, Geography, among others. Moreover, it identifies the types of learning experiences to be provided to all students.

The notion of competence introduced in this document integrates *knowledge*, *skills* and *attitudes* and can be understood as *knowledge in action* or *in use*. It aims at the promotion of an integrated development of skills and attitudes which facilitate the use of knowledge in diverse contexts, more or less known to the student (9). More importantly, the competences identified should not be seen as closed and finished objectives but rather as national references to the work of teachers.

The following sections present the analysis of references to ELT concepts associated with EIL in the two main parts of the syllabus (the 'general competences' and the 'specific competences').

4.2.2.1. The *General Competences*:

This document identified ten general competences. Fundamentally, they focus on the use of the mother tongue, the acquisition of study skills, the development of the student's autonomy and the use of critical thinking, problem solving and cooperative strategies, among others. As the document states, the development of these general competences can only be achieved through the involvement of all subject areas. In other words, the English teacher, as well as all other teachers, is expected to deal with these general competences in their classes. Therefore, a list of objectives to be followed in all subjects is identified for each competence. In addition, a set of classroom practices to help teachers achieve these objectives is also suggested.

The following are some of the practices to be carried out in the foreign language classroom:

- to make use of questions concerning the student's daily life;
- to make use of the media and the surrounding environment;
- to organize teaching foreseeing situations of mother tongue use and awareness due to the students' different levels in English.

In essence, they seem to be relevant practices in the foreign language classroom as they give considerable importance to the students' first language and the local and national cultural patterns.

However, the fourth competence in the list definitely recognizes the importance attributed to the learning of foreign languages in the curricular reorganization. This general competence specifies that at the end of basic education, the student should be able to "use foreign languages to communicate adequately in daily situations and to acquire information" (15).

Four objectives are then presented (20):

- to understand oral and written texts in the foreign languages so as to diversify the sources of technological, scientific and cultural knowledge;
- to interact orally and in writing in the foreign languages so as to broaden and reinforce relationships with foreign partners/interlocutors;

- to use the information about the foreign cultures available in the surrounding environment and particularly in the media for future intercultural exchanges;
- to self-evaluate his/her linguistic performance in the foreign languages as far as adequacy and efficiency are concerned.

Next, to reinforce the relevance of foreign language learning, some classroom practices to be developed by the teachers of all subjects and subject areas are suggested:

- to organize teaching foreseeing the use of materials in the foreign languages;
- to benefit from the use of information in the foreign languages through the internet and other computer resources;
- to organize cooperative learning activities which promote the use of several languages and cultures;
- to promote activities of real or virtual exchange with growing use of IT materials;
- to promote projects in which the foreign languages are used.

4.2.2.2. The *Specific Competences – Foreign Languages*

The specific competences for the subject “Foreign Languages” were based on the current foreign languages syllabi and the Common European Framework of References (Council of Europe, 2001) for modern languages learning. The most significant principle of these competences is the concept of foreign language learning as the development of a plurilingual and pluricultural competence:

To be competent in languages means to acquire a set of knowledge about the language and the culture of the peoples who use it as expression of their identity. (...) It also means to develop individual characteristics particular to one’s personality, namely receptive and interactive attitudes toward other forms of being and living. (Council of Europe, 2001:40)

The development of a plurilingual and pluricultural competence requires an articulated management of the foreign languages syllabi. Thus, this document aimed at an integrated perspective on language learning in basic education once there are more similarities than differences in the domain of the specific competences of each foreign language.

The specific competences were formulated at three levels:

- the 'expected performance': the necessary performance in the achievement of the end profile ;
- the 'learning processes': the necessary processes in the development of study.
- the 'achievement descriptors': what the learner is expected to be able to do at the end of a *ciclo*;

The specific competences were then established based on two levels: first, the language processes – *reception*, *interaction* and *production*; and the types of language use – *oral* and *written*. The interconnection of these two levels resulted in six competence domains: *listening comprehension*, *reading comprehension*, *spoken interaction*, *written interaction*, *oral production* and *written production*.

The following are the competence domains and the expected performance identified in the document found relevant to this study:

Listening comprehension and reading comprehension

A. Expected performance

- Can recognize characteristics of the society and culture of the communities which use the target language (2nd *ciclo*; 3rd *ciclo*, FL II)
- Can recognize similarities and differences between his/her own culture and the foreign culture (2nd *ciclo*; 3rd *ciclo*, FL II)
- Can identify characteristics of the society and culture of the communities which use the target language (3rd *ciclo*, FL I)
- Can establish relationships of similarities and differences between his/her own culture and the foreign culture (3rd *ciclo*, FL I)

Spoken interaction and written interaction:

A. Expected performance

- Can handle communicative behaviour based on the characteristics of the society and culture of the communities which use the target language and on the similarities and differences between his/her own culture and the foreign culture (2nd ciclo; 3rd ciclo)

Oral production and written production:

A. Expected performance

- Can handle communicative behaviour based on the characteristics of the society and culture of the communities which use the target language and on the similarities and differences between his/her own culture and the foreign culture (2nd ciclo; 3rd ciclo)

Finally, this document also makes reference to a set of competences related to the students' ability to learn:

- to consciously involve oneself in the construction of a plurilingual and pluricultural competence by:
 - * adopting an open and tolerant attitude towards foreign languages and cultures
 - * establishing relationships of similarity/contrast between the mother tongue and the foreign languages
- to use appropriation strategies to the foreign language as a *tool of communication*
- to use appropriation strategies to the *structure* of the foreign languages.

4.2.2.3. EIL and the 2001 Basic Education National Curriculum

Essentially, the aim of this document was to establish a set of fundamental general competences in basic education and specific competences in each subject and subject area rather than revise the current syllabi. To this date, the 1995 syllabus for ELT remains as the proper guidelines for classroom activities and materials development. However, the 2001 basic education curriculum sets up significant points which can relate to a global approach to the English language.

It is important to highlight that the document is not specific to English or any other language but rather to foreign languages in general. The fact that one of the general competences identified is about foreign language learning is noteworthy. More interestingly, the objectives listed for this competence stress the intercultural and interpersonal aspects of foreign language use (use of the foreign language in daily situations and to acquire knowledge and information). Similarly, the written and oral skills proposed in the specific competences make references to the societies and cultures of the communities which use the target language. If these guidelines are applied to the learning and teaching of English, it is quite possible to view them reinforcing a more international approach to the English language.

The role of English as a global language can also be reinforced by the central role of the student's mother tongue and national culture in the foreign language class advocated by the document. Both the general and specific competences acknowledge the importance of establishing similarities and differences between the student's language and culture and the foreign languages and cultures.

Finally, setting 'adequacy and efficiency' as the student's objective when performing in the foreign language as opposed to aiming at a native target model can also be seen as a means to approach English as an international language (see section 2.7).

4.2.3. The 2002 Secondary School Educational Reform

In June 2003 the Ministry of Education approved the final version of the English Programme for Years 10 and 11¹⁸ (Continuation level, FL I and II) and for Year 12 (Continuation level, FL II)¹⁹. According to one of the officers in the Department of Secondary Education responsible for the creation of the English syllabus, there were two main assumptions to be considered by the working group. First, the idea that English nowadays cannot be seen just as the language spoken in the UK and the US. In other words, the programme should encourage the teacher to display an attitude of

¹⁸ The programme for Years 10 and 11 had already been approved in 2001.

¹⁹ In Year 12 English is only provided to students taking the General Course in Languages and Literatures and students in other general courses who want to continue one of the foreign languages studied in their general education (see section 1.6.3).

flexibility as far as the students and the learning process are concerned. And second, the programme should be open and adaptable due to the variety of courses.

The major concepts which underlie the English programme are found in the first section of the document. Essentially, the introductory remarks emphasize two current notions in ELT today: first, the international role of the English language and second, the choices in terms of what to teach. It is exactly this second idea that serves as the basis for the linguistic and sociocultural scope of this programme:

As an active part of the European linguistic and cultural plurality, the English language has come to acquire the status of the primary language of world communication: in the worlds of business, global information technology, science among others. Questions related to what to teach in terms of language and culture have become more complex because of the fact of English assuming this status and more so because of the decentralisation of its two principal forms: *American English* and *British English*. *We have adopted in this programme an inclusive vision of the English language, incorporating other cultures in which it is the primary language, and giving privilege to its role as a language of international communication.*

So, it is set from the very beginning that the central idea of this programme is that the English language should be understood as a plurality of Englishes related to a number of different cultures who use it rather than the language of two of the most influential nations in the world, the United States and Great Britain. Moreover, it seemed important to highlight the need to develop the students' competencies and attitudes towards a multilingual and multicultural approach to English:

Such an option requires that the students are given opportunities to come into contact with linguistic realities and diverse cultures in a way which will ensure the development of communicative and socio-cultural competencies, founded on attitudes, values, and competencies promoting education for citizenship and on openness and respect of difference.

The purpose of the programme was to provide teachers with generic and methodological guidelines for its management, principles for assessment, and a list of sources for further help – from Internet sites to reference works. First, general and specific aims and objectives were set out. Then, objectives of learning at the beginning of each of the three components of the programme – Interpretation and Production of Texts, Sociocultural Dimension, and English Language – were presented. Also included was a general vision of the contents of the programme, a group of skills developing alongside the two-year/three-year programme and general methodological guidelines.

The following is an analysis of the programme bearing in mind the conceptualization of EIL proposed in this study. In other words, although the document is rich in linguistic, sociocultural and pedagogical information, only references which are relevant to this study are highlighted.

4.2.3.1. The Aims and Objectives

Seven general aims were proposed. In essence, they make references to the acquisition of linguistic competence in English, the promotion of study skills for life-long learning, the stimulation of interdisciplinary work through cooperation and project work and the formation of active and critical learners, among others. However, two of those aims were related to the acquisition of intercultural competence emphasizing English speaking contexts:

- to provide, through the English language, contact with the various sociocultural universes in which it is used
- to promote an education which is inter/multicultural, critical, and participatory, assuming cultural diversity as the source of a rich identity

At the same time, nine objectives were identified. Most of them emphasized the development of appropriate and fluent language use, attitudes of cooperation and critical thinking, the promotion of autonomy and the use of problem-solving and learning strategies. But one objective applied to the sociocultural dimension of the programme:

- to interact with worldwide English cultures, demonstrating openness and respect for cultural differences

4.2.3.2. General Vision of Programme Contents

This section of the programme briefly identified its contents, organised in three distinct but integrated components: Interpretation and Production of Texts, Sociocultural Dimension, and English Language. A central character was attributed to the component Interpretation and Production of Texts, from which the organisation of all teaching and

learning activities was derived. In this component, the strategies of interpretation and production – listening, speaking, reading and writing – were activated by types of text which display discourse macrofunctions and different communicative intentions. The Sociocultural Dimension was divided into domains of reference, while the English Language component covered the *word*, the *sentence*, and *pronunciation*.

4.2.3.3. Skills development

The aims and objectives identified in 4.2.3.1 were formulated by reference to general competences (knowledge, skills and know-how, existential competence and ability to learn) and the specific competences necessary to the acquisition of communicative competence: linguistic, pragmatic and sociolinguistic. However, there seemed to be some emphasis put on the sociocultural skills:

The sociolinguistic component, related to the sociocultural aspect of communicative competence – and which reveals to the consciousness the social conventions which govern the communicative interactions between representatives of different cultural communities (rules of sociability, norms which govern relationships between generations, sexes, and social classes, etc) – underlie the linguistic and pragmatic components.

Although the programme identified the three groups of skills – language skills, learning skills and sociocultural skills – to be used for reference as to the development of the student, only a couple of the sociocultural skills mentioned can be related to the scope of this study. These skills, “observable in intersecting attitudes and behaviours”, are:

- to demonstrate openness to new experiences and ideas and face other societies and cultures showing an interest in getting to know them and taking steps to learn about them.
- to relate his/her culture of origin with other cultures in which it comes into contact, relativising his/her point of view and cultural value system, and showing the ability to question stereotyped attitudes about other peoples, societies and cultures.

4.2.3.4. Programme components

The section on the first component, *Interpretation and Production of Texts*, made no linguistic or cultural references to the characteristics of English as an international language. However, the other two components, *Sociocultural Dimension* and *English Language*, significantly remarked on the international linguistic and cultural scope of English.

4.2.3.4.1. Sociocultural Dimension

The sociocultural dimension was formed through four domains of reference in all three years. It is hoped that through these domains students can develop their general knowledge of the Portuguese society, to understand their position in it, and “to analyse the relations which exist between this society and the larger community – Europe and the World”. Moreover, the sociocultural dimension takes into account the social, cultural, and economic changes of the contemporary world “caused by the phenomena of globalisation, multiculturalism and the march of progress and development” aiming “to explore problems connected to the profound transformations in society and the consequent emergence of new conceptions and social dynamics”.

The programme also identified the underlying general and specific objectives of this dimension:

- To interact with world-wide English-speaking cultures, demonstrating openness and respect for cultural differences.

- To develop a consciousness of his/her sociocultural universe and the way in which this relates to others' sociocultural universes
- To develop the ability of intercultural communication
- To widen knowledge about the sociocultural universes of English-speaking countries
- To develop civic attitudes and values and ethics favourable to multicultural understanding and social contact

Furthermore, a set of principles was proposed for the exploration of the sociocultural dimension:

- Thematic relevance to the particular context of the students (school, course, geographical location, interests...)
- Thematic relevance for the study of the cultures of English-speaking countries
- Importance of the analysis of local, national and international dimensions in the treatment of the domains of reference
- Authenticity and up-to-dateness of materials, texts, issues and situations
- Treatment of the themes which is transversal, interconnected, and cross-disciplinary

The overall aim of the sociocultural dimension in Year 10 is “to encourage the student to characterise social changes, to assume critical positions and to see him/herself in the role of an active agent in society” and the four domains of reference are: *A world of many languages*, *The technological world*, *The media and global communication* and *Young people in the global age*.

A World of Many Languages is the only domain which clearly approaches aspects related to the meeting of languages and cultures, namely the surge in new practices of sociality and communicative standards, “in which the English language has assumed a position as the means of access to communication and interchange with other peoples”²⁰. This domain is divided into three sections: contact with other languages, experiences and cultures; mobility, youth and languages; and the English language. However, it is only the latter section that elaborates on the issue of English as a global language as it proposes to examine the English language (a) in English-speaking countries, (b) as a means of communication between cultures, (c) as the language of new technologies, and (d) as the language of the business world.

In Year 11 the sociocultural domain hopes to raise the students’ awareness as regards questions of ecological balance, cultural heritage, ethics and social action through the following domains of reference: *The world around us*, *Young people and consumerism*, *The world of work*, and *A world of many cultures*. Similar to Year 10, only one domain

²⁰ The other three domains feature the various changing relationship dynamics and styles and suggest an exploration of social transformations such as new concepts of family, education, and interpersonal relationships “deriving from the introduction of new technologies in the daily lives of individuals”.

– *A world of many cultures* – addresses the issue of global English through its cultural manifestations. Split into two distinct but complementary foci, this domain is centred on the question of multiculturalism, on the one hand proposing an approach to universal ethical principles relevant to cultural diversity such as equality of opportunities, social and economic inclusion, discrimination and intolerance, and on the other hand, emphasizing the knowledge of the habits, customs and life styles of various English-speaking cultures.

As Year 12 is basically oriented towards students who are going to continue their studies in the area of Languages and Literatures (see section 1.6.3), besides providing the opportunity to reflect on issues of citizenship and multiculturalism, such as rights and freedom in a multicultural society, the contents of the sociocultural domain for this year refer to cultural and sociolinguistic aspects related to the development of the English language and its interaction with other languages and cultures. The four domains of reference which deal with these topics are: *The English language in the world*, *Citizenship and multiculturalism*, *Democracy in a global age*, and *Cultures, arts and societies*. However, only the first and the last domains make direct references to the English language and cultures.

The following topics of the domain *The English language in the world* unquestionably stress the international role of English today:

- The evolution of the English language as a social, political and cultural phenomenon:
 - languages of the world and expansionism (Portuguese, Spanish, English, Dutch,...)
 - the English language and the information society
 - the future of the English language
- Diversity in the English language:
 - Englishes (standard varieties)
 - interaction of the English language with other languages (linguistic and cultural enrichment)

The domain *Cultures, arts and societies* basically aims at allowing the student to examine some of the artistic manifestations of the second half of the 20th century in the fields of literature, film, and music, among others. Moreover, there are suggestions for

the study of some indigenous cultures in English speaking countries such as Native Americans, Aborigines, and Maoris, stressing interaction and cultural enhancement.

4.2.3.4.2. *The English Language*

In this section, the programme provided an inventory of the morphosyntactic and phonological aspects of the linguistic system to serve as a reference for Years 10, 11 and 12. However, because of the huge spread of lexical areas and semantic fields explored within the proposed domains of reference, the lexico-semantic component was left out although it is an integral part of linguistic competence. In addition, the programme wanted to avoid a prescriptive and binding character that an exhaustive list of lexical areas could assume.

For all three years, the component *English Language* was divided into three parts: THE WORD (nouns, pronouns, determiners, adjectives, verbs, adverbs and adverbial phrases, prepositions and prepositional phrases, conjunctions and conjunctive phrases), THE CLAUSE (simple and complex clauses) and PRONUNCIATION (intonation, rhythm, stress, phonology of the word, phonology of the clause, discourse markers).

However, there was no reference to specific characteristics of English varieties. It is only in a small section particular to Year 12 – ENGLISH VARIETIES/REGISTERS – that variations in spelling, lexicon and pronunciation are suggested as content areas to be brought up in the classroom. This and a few other subjects were not included in Years 10 and 11 because the presentation of such “specific or not so frequent language uses” seemed to fit the purposes of Year 12, that is, “to provide students with a more advanced and extensive knowledge of the structure and usage of the English language”.

4.2.3.5. *Methodological Guidelines*

This section called attention to the development of text-based activities, in which the English language and the sociocultural dimension can be integrated. As the component of *Interpretation and Production of Text* is the principal focus of the programme, it is vital to provide opportunities for the students to interpret and produce a variety of texts in which the formal, semantic, and pragmatic dimensions are integrated. Moreover, “the

diversity of English-speaking cultures implies that the repertoire of texts should likewise be of diverse origin”. On the other hand, in the area of *Sociocultural Dimension* “students should be encouraged to have an open and reflective attitude to the contacts which are made, aiding the exploration of new areas of cultural and linguistic knowledge”.

4.2.3.6. Evaluation

Here the programme highlighted the importance of implementing a diverse group of evaluative instruments which include the processes that underlie the realization of the learning activities. In other words, it becomes fundamental “to monitor the quality of participation, of work done, and of the students’ progress in performing different activities”. Furthermore, evaluation implies the involvement of the student and one of the ways of doing it is by the “elaboration of an individual portfolio, which can integrate records, in various formats, of the means and processes which the student uses to develop his/her learning, allowing, therefore, a reflection leading to self-knowledge and self-construction”.

The programme then lists some possible components of a portfolio. Among them, three can be related to the possibility of contacting different international varieties of English and their cultures:

- Reading record of magazines, newspapers, and books written in English
- Record of contacts with foreign correspondents, by letter or email
- Record of other intercultural contacts

It is interesting to point out that the above mentioned references aim at an ongoing process of evaluation throughout secondary education. However, once students finish their secondary studies and decide to continue studying at the tertiary level, the entrance exams to universities or polytechnics will focus on the students’ knowledge of grammar/usage and their reading and writing skills, which may or may not incorporate issues related to EIL.

4.2.3.7. Resources

In the Resources section, the programme pointed out some reading suggestions which incorporate not just works specific to sociocultural aspects of English-speaking countries, but also collections of short stories, poetry, plays, novels and films which aim to encourage and developing a taste for reading and sensitising the students to the comprehension of other cultural universes. In addition, it listed some auxiliary reference materials which teachers can explore in the practice of their teaching, such as multimedia, audio and video materials, and Internet resources – websites of a generic nature and specific sites specially designed to support teachers, providing contact with other experiences and pedagogical practices.

The following are some of the resources suggested, such as internet sites, dictionaries, extensive readings, and films, which can help build the student's awareness of the English speaking cultures:

A. Internet sites related to the sociocultural domains:

Sites on studying English in the UK, NASA, newspapers around the world (The Washington Post, The Times, The Sydney Morning Herald, Toronto Globe and Mail, Africa News, Business New South Wales, The New Zealand Herald), CNN (Year 10); world cultures, multiculturalism, intercultural learning, American English, Scottish English, Australian English, English as a second language, English in India, English in Ireland (Year 11); History of the English Language, Early American English, Australia, Canada, India, Ireland, the UK (Year 12)

B. Dictionaries: Dictionaries of American English (paper and CD-ROM)

C. Internet reference materials:

Dictionaries (Encarta World English Dictionary, American-British/British-American Dictionary) and Encyclopaedias (Australian Online Encyclopaedia)

D. Suggestions of reading and other resources:

- *English speaking cultures*: books and videos on English speaking countries, the United States, Australia, New Zealand, Scotland, varieties of English

- *Extensive reading*: tales, short stories and novels by Chinua Achebe, Maya Angelou, James Baldwin, Truman Capote, Nadine Gordimer, V.S. Naipaul, Wole Soyinka, Alice Walker

E. Suggestions of videos: *Dances with Wolves, The Last of the Mohicans, The Colour Purple, Cry Freedom, Passage to India, Gandhi, Angela's Ashes, My Left Foot, The Piano*

4.2.3.8. EIL and the 2002 Secondary School Educational Reform

It becomes quite clear from the very beginning of the English syllabus that the international role of English is of central importance. The introductory remarks call attention to the decentralization of the main varieties – AmE/BrE – and a view of the language which incorporates English-speaking cultures. Moreover, throughout the documents (*aims, objectives, sociocultural dimension, methodological guidelines, evaluation, and resources*) there are references to the need to approach English emphasizing interaction and intercultural communication with a diversity of world-wide English-speaking cultures. The move from a dual linguistic and cultural perspective in the 1995 syllabus (American and British languages and cultures) to a more global outlook on the English language and cultures might be regarded as an attempt to keep up with the more recent developments in the ELT field.

However, one of the drawbacks of the 2002 syllabus is that it does not include references to English varieties. Although the 1995 syllabus made specific references to the features of only the major varieties of English (AmE and BrE), the lack of identification of linguistic characteristics of English native varieties (only a few are made in the programme for Year 12) may be considered a backward motion away from the approach to English as a global language. Perhaps in an effort to be flexible, open and adaptable, language varieties were thought to be of secondary importance. However, if the viewpoint of EIL is to be one of the backbones of the syllabus, a lot more significance should have been given to the linguistic features of native varieties of English.

Finally, it is important to mention that in line with the 1995 syllabus and the 2001 reform, the 2002 document stresses that students are expected to develop knowledge and consciousness of their own sociocultural universe in order to be able to understand and demonstrate openness and respect for other cultures. Fundamentally, the three documents analysed agree that the student's language and culture should not be left out of the language classroom.

Taking into account some of the fundamental aspects of EIL that can be found in the learning and teaching of the language (see Chapter 2), the 2002 Secondary School Educational Reform tried to embrace the concept of international English through the emphasis on the intercultural dimension of the language, the identification of the linguistic and cultural diversity of English and on the relevance of the student's mother tongue and culture in the ELT context.

When comparing this syllabus with the one established in 1995 for the secondary level, there was a clear move from a 'nation-centred' approach – US and UK – to an international viewpoint of English. However, the emphasis is clearly put on English-speaking cultures as very little is mentioned on the linguistic features of native varieties. Unfortunately, the same analysis cannot be made in the comparison of the guidelines for basic education in the 1995 syllabus and the 2001 Basic Education National Curriculum due to the different purposes of each document. However, a similar move from an emphasis on the two major English-speaking cultures in the 1995 syllabus to the intercultural orientation found in the 2001 curriculum can also be considered a sign that the Portuguese educational system has been assimilating the idea that the English taught in Portugal should reflect its global influence and status.

In spite of this, the international role of English depicted in the three documents analysed seems to be somewhat limited in scope as there is no reference to non-native English varieties and cultures.

4.3. Classroom materials

This section reports the findings of the analysis of references to native and non-native varieties of English and their cultures in twelve sets of materials used from Year 7 to

Year 12 published by Portuguese and British publishers (*Aerial 7, Project 3, Cool Zone, Plunge, Teen Time 3, Weblane, Englishes, Global, Meanings, New Hotline Elementary, Prime Time 3* and *Aerial 12*). Each set consisted of a different number of materials such as textbook, workbook, teacher’s book, student’s booklet, audio cassette/CD, video cassette and transparencies, depending on their availability for analysis (see Appendix 3.7).

The analysis was conducted on two perspectives. The first perspective identified references to and uses of native and non-native varieties of English while the second identified references to English speaking and non-English speaking cultures.

4.3.1. References to and uses of native and non-native varieties of English

This perspective of analysis aimed first at the identification of references to and uses of those features of English which are commonly found in ELT reference materials and dictionaries as differences between AmE and BrE such as spelling (AmE color vs. BrE colour), vocabulary (AmE sidewalk vs. BrE pavement), grammar (AmE on the street vs. BrE in the street) and pronunciation (AmE /pæst/ vs. BrE /pɑst/). It is important to highlight that these features are not necessarily exclusive to one variety but they are rather features which possess equivalents in the other variety. Moreover, many times one feature may be found in both varieties though there is a clear distinction on the frequency of occurrence which makes the feature more likely to appear in one variety. The second aim of this analysis was to identify references to and uses of features of other native and non-native English varieties also in the areas of spelling, vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation (Appendix 4.1 shows the kind of analysis carried out and the references to and uses of varieties of English identified in one of the textbooks).

Table 4.6 shows the frequency of references to and uses of the features identified. As the same feature, i.e. the use of ~or (instead of ~our) or the use of equivalent features such as AmE ‘fall’ and BrE ‘autumn’, may appear on different pages or more than once on the same page, each occurrence was counted as one. Features in the pronunciation area were identified in listening comprehension activities through the speakers in the activities with identifiable accents. Each speaker would then count as one occurrence of the variety/accent. When the same activity had two or more speakers with the same

accent, each speaker/accent was considered as a separate count. Pronunciation features were identified through the analysis of audio cassettes or CDs or, when they were not available for analysis, through the key to pronunciation exercises in the student's book or the teacher's book which referred to features of a specific variety. As for the differences between AmE and BrE, each count refers to an explicit reference to the feature in both varieties.

Table 4.6: References to/use of language varieties

		References to language varieties														Use of language varieties																							
		Differences AmE/BrE						BrE				AmE				Other varieties ²¹						BrE						AmE						Other varieties/accents ²²					
		S	V	G	P	S	V	G	P	S	V	G	P	S	V	G	P	S	V	G	P	S	V	G	P	S	V	G	P	S	V	G	P						
Y7	AE7																																						
	PR3	2								1																													2
Y8	COZ		1																																				
	PLU																																						3
Y9	TT3	39	78	14																																			
	WEB																																						
Y10	ENG		7	3																																			
	GLO	1	6																																				
Y11	MEA																																						
	NHE	2	15	1	3																																		3
Y12	PT3	14	24																																				
	A12	15	1																																				

(Key: S = spelling; V = vocabulary; G = grammar; P = pronunciation; Y7, Y8, etc. = Year 7, Year 8, etc.; AE7 = Aerial 7; PR3 = Project 3; COZ = Cool Zone; PLU = Plunge; TT3 = Teen Time 3; WEB = Webl ine; ENG = Englishes; GLO = Global; MEA = Meanings; NHE = New Hotline Elementary; PT3 = Prime Time 3; A12 = Aerial 12)

²¹ PLU (Jamaican English); WEB (Scottish English); MEA (Scottish English)

²² PR3 (Australian accent, Canadian accent); PLU (Portuguese accent); NHE (Spanish accent, Scottish accent, Welsh accent); ENG (Australian English); GLO (Canadian English: *French fries, catsup, color, patronize*; although these features were found in a text where a Polish teenage immigrant in Toronto talked about her first experiences in Canada, there was no reference to a possible Canadian or American source of the text since these features can also be found in AmE. However, for the purpose of the analysis, the researcher chose to consider them features of Canadian English) (see Bisset, 2000; see Crystal, 1995: 340-342 for the influences of BrE and AmE in Canadian English)

The empty boxes in the table may indicate that no feature specific to one variety was found or that there was no material to be analyzed (as is the case in the pronunciation area due to lack of audio cassettes/CDs).

The following sections comment on the presence of references to differences between AmE and BrE, references to and use of AmE and BrE, references to and use of other varieties/accents, and the use of both AmE and BrE (mixing varieties). Next, the occurrence of references to and use of native and non-native varieties of English will be analysed in the light of the three documents examined in section 4.2.

4.3.1.1. References to differences between AmE and BrE

Some references to features of AmE and BrE were identified in most sets of materials. However, only *Teen Time 3*, *New Hotline Elementary*, *Prime Time 3* and *Aerial 12* showed significant numbers of references. If one compares the results of Year 7 with Year 9 materials, it might be said that there seemed to be an increase in the number of references as the years advanced. However, results for year 8 do not seem to confirm this view. It is also interesting to note that the books published by Oxford University Press (OUP) (*Project 3*, and especially *New Hotline Elementary*), were among those which included references to features of AmE and BrE. Furthermore, materials for Year 12 (*Prime Time 3* and *Aerial 12*) seemed to reflect the 1995 syllabus²³. Finally, there seems to be no more emphasis on the presentation of differences between AmE and BrE in the more recently published materials (i.e. those published after the 2000 and 2001 educational reforms – Years 8 and 10) if compared with the previously published materials. To sum up, among the Portuguese books, only *Teen Time 3* seemed to give some relevance to the presentation of differences between the two varieties²⁴.

²³ As English is taught only in the Humanities area, i.e. to students who are likely to continue their tertiary education in Languages and Literatures courses, the Year 12 syllabus emphasizes American and British cultures. In other words, while it allows for the use and/or identification of features of both English varieties, it somehow prevents materials writers from including references to other varieties.

²⁴ The teacher's book explains the role of AmE and BrE in the materials: 'Set 1 is dedicated to the universal role of the English language, types of oral and written texts and the distinction between the English spoken in the US and the UK (AmE and BrE)' (p. 5); '*Teen Time 1* and 2 distinguished AmE from BrE although the student was not expected to recognise the differences or memorise vocabulary. This year some differences in spelling, vocabulary and grammar are presented. (...) It is important to note that some of these words may be used in Britain or the US with different meanings. However, the words presented in this lesson have the same meaning. It is also important to highlight that many words from the

4.3.1.2. References to and use of AmE and BrE

Few materials identified characteristics of the American and British varieties of English and most of the times they referred to non-standard features (*Meanings*, Black American English), contributions from other languages (*Aerial 12*, American Indian words), or regional accents (*New Hotline Elementary*, Manchester accent). It is clear that those materials which present characteristics of AmE are also the ones which make more use of AmE features (*Aerial 12*, *Meanings*, *Prime Time 3* and *Teen Time 3*). As for references to BrE, basically only the OUP books (*Project 3* and *New Hotline Elementary*) and the Year 12 materials included some references. By and large, it is evident that all materials make more use of BrE than AmE (especially OUP books)²⁵.

4.3.1.3. References to and use of other varieties/accents

Only three sets of materials made references to varieties of English other than the American and British ones. However, even though *Meanings* indicates 17 references to Scottish English, in fact they all relate to only one reference to words and phrases from this variety (textbook, p. 21). Five sets of materials make use of other varieties and accents of English. In short, there are few references to and little use of other native and non-native varieties of English. Although the OUP books²⁶ and the Year 10 materials (which follow the new 2002 English syllabus for secondary education), are the ones which provide more examples of other language varieties, it cannot be said that the international role of English is represented in the materials analyzed.

4.3.1.4. Mixing varieties

US are already part of the colloquial or even the written language of the UK. (...) Students should be expected to memorise some of these words as well as know how to distinguish them' (p. 6).

²⁵ Quite often the language presented is characteristic of BrE but no references to its AmE equivalent are made. It may be a grammar rule (*Cool Zone*, textbook, p. 19, 'with verbs ending in a consonant + a vowel + a consonant we double the last consonant and we add _ed: *travel – travelled*') or it may be related to vocabulary (*Plunge*, textbook, p. 90, *serviette/napkin* and *chips/fries*).

²⁶ *Project 3* uses Australian accent (tapescript 3), Canadian accent (tapescript 29) and American accent (tapescripts 26 and 43) although there are no references to these accents in the materials and they are quite few considering that there is a total of 79 listening activities.

A major characteristic of the books which use both AmE and BrE is that these varieties sometimes appear at the same time, i.e. in the same text or exercise. Curiously, it seems that this hybrid form of English which allows the characteristic of both varieties to co-exist side by side has become a distinctive feature of some Portuguese ELT materials:

- Teen Time 3: textbook, *storey/center, pavement*²⁷ (in the same text, p. 187); *rumour/rumors* (p. 142); *behaviour/behavior, chemist's/drugstore, pavement/sidewalk, mum/mom, colour/color*.
- Weblines: textbook, *lift/elevator, mum/mom, neighbour/neighbor, programme/program, centre/center, maths/math, traveller/traveler*; teacher's book, *favourite/fiber*.
- Englishes: textbook, *holiday/vacation, brackets/parentheses, centre/centers*; workbook, *CV/résumé*; transparencies, *colour/harbor, center, traveling*;
- Global: textbook, *underground/subway, metres/meters*; workbook, *neighbours(ing)/neighborhood*.
- Prime Time 3: textbook, *driving licence/driver's license* (p. 54); *centres/center* (p. 277); *honour/honor*, (p. 282); *petrol/center*, (p. 65).
- Aerial 12: textbook, *brackets/center* (p. 166); *humour/traveling* (p. 93); *favourite(able)/favorite, program*, (p. 247); workbook, *travelling/defense, honor, program* (p. 14); *coloured/program* (p. 4-5).

Another recurrent characteristic of many materials was the use of different spellings to the same word (especially ~ise/~ize) throughout the books (eg. recognised/recognized, organise/organize, encyclopaedia/encyclopedia, learnt/learned). It would be important to verify if this hybrid form of English is deliberate or the result of poor proof-reading. However, due to the number of occurrences, it seems that it was the choice of the materials writers to present both AmE and BrE features together.

4.3.1.5. The 1995 ELT Syllabus for Basic Education vs. the 2001 Basic Education National Curriculum

²⁷ The words to the left of the slash are BrE features while to the right are AmE features. When they are not equivalent, for instance different spellings of the same word, the purpose is to show the use of both varieties at the same time (in the same text, same page—when page number is identified, or in different parts of the book).

Comparing the two sets of materials which follow the 1995 syllabus (Year 7 and 9), one might conclude that the use and identification of characteristics of English varieties, especially AmE, seem to increase as the language levels progress (even though the identification and use of AmE and other varieties in Year 9 materials are scant, especially in *Weblines*). However, the lack of information about language varieties and the emphasis on the use of BrE in the textbooks for Year 8 (which were published after the 2001 National curriculum) challenge that viewpoint. In other words, the new guidelines have not led to more information about AmE or other varieties or even the use of AmE in the textbooks.

4.3.1.6. The 1995 ELT Syllabus for Secondary Education vs. the 2002 Secondary Education Reform

When comparing materials which follow the 1995 syllabus (Years 11 and 12) with those following the 2002 syllabus (Year 10), it is important to highlight the content for Year 12. Following what had been established in 1995, the materials analysed for this year presented some differences between AmE and BrE and used both varieties in their units. On the contrary, Years 10 and 11 materials displayed a rather inconsistent approach to English varieties. While Year 10 materials identified a few distinctions between AmE and BrE, only one set in Year 11 (*New Hotline Elementary*) did the same. Moreover, neither material presented characteristics of other varieties (except for a brief identification of Scottish English in *Meanings*). Finally, each set made use of the two varieties in a different way: BrE was basically the only variety used in *New Hotline Elementary*; BrE was the preferred variety in *Englishes* and *Global*; and both BrE and AmE were used in *Meanings*.

Lastly, it is interesting to observe that the absence of references to other native varieties and the little emphasis on AmE in the materials published after the implementation of the 2002 syllabus (Year 10) were quite surprising facts. In essence, the concept of English as an international language which underlay the new syllabus for secondary education does not seem to be manifested in those materials analyzed.

4.3.2. References to native and non-native cultures

This perspective of analysis attempted to identify references to native and non-native (ESL and EFL) cultures, Portugal and international topics. Cultural references were categorized in one of the following domains: *place*, *people* and *facts*.

First, *place* references consisted of identifications of the place of birth or residence (past or present) of a fictional character in the book, travel destinations, internet/e-mail/s-mail addresses, prices of items (currency related to a country), or address/location of organizations.

Second, *people* references were references to or facts about historical figures, or famous entertainers/artists/writers (with or without identification of titles of their works). In short, even when a text provided factual information about the person such as the place of birth or biographical events, it counted as *people* reference, not *place* or *facts*.

Finally, *facts* references were information about a country’s important dates, traditional food, eating habits, (origin of) flag, family structure, historical background, entertainment/leisure (music, movies, newspapers, television), school system, sports, weather, tourist sites, employment/jobs, geography, drugs issue, technology, the environment, language, map, and literature. In the same way, some of these topics could apply to a city instead of the whole country. Also, when literary references were made through excerpts and the author was identified, it counted as *facts* not *people*, unless the excerpt did not provide factual information about the culture of the country/city (then it would be considered *people* reference).

It is important to stress that no reference was assigned to more than one domain (Appendix 4.1 shows the kind of analysis carried out and the cultural references identified in one of the textbooks). Table 4.7 shows the frequency of cultural references encountered. The empty boxes in the table indicate that no references were found.

The following sections comment on the occurrence of references to the US , the UK and other native cultures, references to ESL and EFL cultures, international references and references to Portugal, and finally, a distinct analysis of cultural references in Year 12 materials is provided. Next, the cultural references identified were analysed in view of the three documents examined in section 4.2.

Table 4.7: Cultural references

	ENL countries												ESL countries			EFL countries			Portugal			International	
	US				UK				Other														
	PE	PL	FA	PE	PL	FA	PE	PL	FA	PE	PL	FA	People	Place	Facts	People	Place	Facts	People	Place	Facts	Place	Facts
AE7	9	4	3	3	15	3		2			3			24	5		2	4		2			
PR3	1	3	5	6	4	15		2	2		1			8			2					1	
COZ	3	4	9	2	10	14			5		1	1		3	5							1	
PLU	1	1	11		4	16	1	6	12		12	1		4			1	2				2	
TT3	10	2	13	19	2	17		6	7		2			13	1							3	
WEB	3	2	10	1	5	4			2					2								2	
ENG	9	10	12	3	6	11	1	8	3		8			4				2	2			2	
GLO	3	2	9	2	4	7			4		1				4			2	1			6	
MEA	15	1	40	8	1	21								1	1							6	
NHE	5	2	2		20	19									1			3		1	1	2	
PT3	<i>passam</i> (see section 4.3.2.4.)																						
A12																							

(Key: PE = People; PL = Place; FA = Facts; AE7 = Aerial 7; PR3 = Project 3; COZ = Cool Zone; PLU = Plunge; TT3 = Teen Time 3; WEB = Weblines; ENG = Englishes; GLO = Global; MEA = Meanings; NHE = New Hotline Elementary; PT3 = Prime Time 3; A12 = Aerial 12)

Note: International references were categorized as ‘place’ references (e.g. the European Union as an entity) or ‘facts’ references (e.g. environmental problems, the internet and the world wide web).

4.3.2.1. References to the US, UK and other ENL cultures

Except for *Englishes*, *Meanings* and *Weblines*, all materials make more references to the UK than to the US. It is interesting also to note that the OUP publications (*New Hotline Elementary* and *Project 3*) present some of the highest numbers of British references. Finally, only *Global* seems to have a balanced number of references to the UK and US.

The overall emphasis on the UK is made clear in the lesson structure and activities in several books. In *Aerial 7* the setting of the situations presented in the textbook is England, so the situations presented are typical of an English person, for example eating Yorkshire pudding (p. 48, 54, 55), travelling to Liverpool (p. 50), using pounds to pay for goods (p. 52, 66; workbook: p. 95, 97, 106, 117, 124, 138). In *Englishes*, the textbook presents a text (cartoons) and speaking and comprehension exercises about cross-cultural communication – communicating in English/with the British: asking the way, how to be polite (p. 50). Curiously, this activity regards communicating in English on the same level as communicating with the British. The issues of politeness, register, complicated information and cultural blindness are discussed based on communicative situations involving the British only.

Moreover, the textbook characters in *Project 3* are teenagers living in Britain. In the same set of materials, although the video cassette (*Window on Britain*) was not available for analysis, the back cover of the student's book provides a brief description of its contents and aims. It states that the video cassette shows “interesting aspects of British life and culture, such as home, sports, music and London” combining “semi-dramatised situations and simplified spoken English but which still sounds authentic language.” In *New Hotline Elementary*, the teacher's book provides some explanation about the ‘Culture Spots’ section in the workbook: “These describe aspects of life in Britain and invite learners to compare them with those in their own country. Teacher's notes for these are included in the teacher's book” (p. iv).

As far as other native cultures (rather than the US and UK) are concerned, *Plunge*, *Teen Time 3* and *Englishes* provide a number of references. Other sets, however, make very few references. Australia is referred to by seven sets (AE7, PR3, COZ, PLU, TT3,

WEB, ENG), Canada by six (PR3, COZ, PLU, TT3, ENG), Ireland²⁸ by six (COZ, PLU, TT3, WEB, ENG) and New Zealand by only two sets (PLU, ENG).

Remarkably, while *Meanings* makes plenty of references to the UK and US – the highest number among all sets of materials – no references to other native cultures were found. Moreover, there seems to be an overall tendency for secondary school materials to emphasize British and American cultures when compared with basic education materials. The exceptions are *Teen Time 3* (basic education) and *Global* (secondary education).

4.3.2.2. References to ESL and EFL cultures²⁹

Few references were made to ESL cultures. Only *Plunge* and *Englishes* showed a higher number of references. Interestingly, even though *Global* presented only one reference to an ESL country (India) and the four references to other native cultures related to Ireland and Canada only, its teacher's book observes that because the 'Global 10' project aims at presenting the English language as the language of universal communication and a tool of contact between different peoples and cultures, the materials aim at the development of intercultural and communicative competences and to achieve this, they include information about English-speaking cultures (p. 7-8).

On the other hand, more references were made to EFL countries. However, similar to the categories of references to ESL countries, most of them were place references, that is, mainly brief identifications of locations. Only three sets of materials (*Aerial 7*, *Englishes*, *Teen Time 3*) provided a higher number of references. If references to ENL (other than the US and UK), ESL and EFL cultures are examined together, *Englishes* seems to stand out from all the other sets of materials.

²⁸ There seems to be some confusion as to how to represent Ireland. In *Cool Zone* (textbook, p. 146), the information in a 'factbox' identifies The Republic of Ireland/Eire and its capital Dublin. However, the information in a text on the same page refers to the fact that 'The country is divided in two parts: Northern Ireland, which belongs to the United Kingdom, and Southern Ireland or the Republic of Ireland or Eire'. Moreover, *Plunge* (textbook, p. 74) presents a text about Ireland and a map of the island highlighting Northern Ireland and showing the location of Belfast. The text refers to 'Ireland' although the map that illustrates the page shows Northern Ireland and its capital, Belfast. In other words, there is no clear distinction between Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland.

²⁹ Some cultures were mistakenly identified as English-speaking: Cyprus, Caribbean islands (*Teen Time 3*, student's booklet, p. 3); Central African Republic (*Plunge*, textbook, p. 14); Haiti, the Caribbean (*Englishes*, textbook, p. 57).

4.3.2.3. International references and references to Portugal

All materials made a few international references and references to Portugal. It is important to highlight that as the OUP materials are published for an international audience, no specific references to Portugal were made but rather to the student’s native country. Except for *Global*, the number of references to Portugal was somehow similar in all sets. The same can be said about international references though *Meanings* and *Global* showed a few more references than the other materials. Apparently, secondary materials make more international references than basic education materials.

4.3.2.4. Year 12 materials

Due to the distinct characteristics of the 1995 Year 12 syllabus focusing on American and British cultures, the approach to the analysis of *Prime Time 3* and *Aerial 12* was slightly modified. The units in both sets of materials were divided in two sections: American culture (PT3: units 1, 2, 3 and 8; A12: units 1, 2, 3 and 4) and British culture (PT3: units 4, 5, 6 and 7; A12: units 5 and 6)³⁰. Table 4.8 shows the titles of the units in both PT3 and A12.

	<i>American culture</i>	<i>British culture</i>
PT3	USA: the new order (Unit 1)	Back to the European dimension (Unit 4)
	The social revolution (Unit 2)	Great Britain: the workshop of the world (Unit 5)
	American sounds, sounds of history (Unit 3)	From Empire to Commonwealth (Unit 6)
	Native cultures (Unit 8)	The world of labour: conflicts, reforms, and worker’s organisations (Unit 7)
A12	The Atomic age (Unit 1)	Years of prosperity (Unit 5)
	The turning point (Unit 2)	Britain in Europe (Unit 6)
	The Golden years (Unit 3)	
	Native cultures (Unit 4)	

Table 4.8: Titles of units in Year 12 materials

On the one hand, some units presented topics which depicted specific features of American culture (e.g., PT3: ‘Kennedy’s inaugural address’, ‘Malcolm X’, ‘The Blues’. ‘Native Americans nowadays’; A12: ‘Decline of Hollywood studios’, ‘The Woodstock

³⁰ This structure was found in all materials in each set (PT3: textbook, workbook, transparencies; A12: textbook, student’s booklet, audio CD).

generation’) or British culture (e.g., PT3: ‘The Iron Lady’, ‘The Great Exhibition of 1851’, ‘The dock strike of 1889’; A12: ‘The Victorian Age’, ‘The Welfare State’).

On the other hand, some texts displayed American and British cultural and historical information with a more international approach (e.g. PT3: ‘The Marshall Plan’, ‘Great Britain and European integration’; A12: ‘International events in the post-war years’, ‘The European movement’).

In other words, references to several cultures, native and non-native, are found throughout the units. More specifically, some texts make references to ENL countries such as ‘Being British and Scottish, Welsh, English, Irish’ (PT3) and ‘Northern Ireland’ (A12), ESL countries such as ‘India’ (PT3) and ‘British West Africa’ (A12) and even EFL cultures such as ‘East of Eden: American culture in Eastern European countries’ (A12).

Basically, although the units in Year 12 materials are structured around themes related to American and British cultures, there are plenty of references to people, places and facts of other native and non-native cultures as well. Table 4.9 shows the cultural references presented in one unit in the PT3 textbook. The diverse references are a representative sample of what is found in other units in both PT3 and A12.

Unit 1: USA, the New Order		
People	Place	Facts
Harry Truman, Arthur Koestler, John Kennedy, J. R. Oppenheimer, Nikita Khrushchev, George Marshall, Senator J. R. McCarthy, Joseph Stalin, Charlie Chaplin, Elia Kazan, Ronald Reagan, Dwight Eisenhower	US, Japan, USSR, Britain, France, China, India, Israel, South Africa, North Korea, Iran, Cuba, Pakistan, Germany	Dropping of the atom-bomb, Pearl Harbor, Enola Gay, the Japanese surrender, the nuclear threat, Kennedy’s inaugural address, the Marshall Plan, the Cold War, NATO, Korean War, UN, Warsaw Pact, the Berlin Wall, the Cuban Missile Crisis

Table 4.9: Cultural references in Unit 1 (PT3, textbook)

To sum up, Year 12 materials provide an abundance of cultural references. Moreover, although the emphasis is on American and British cultures, references to other native cultures and non-native cultures are also pervasive. However, both sets of materials

make few references to Portuguese culture. By and large, most are brief references in pre-text or follow up activities which engage students in comparing and contrasting the target cultures (US/UK) and the Portuguese culture in different issues such as pop music, sports, minorities and festivals. Curiously, both PT3 and A12 suggested more extensive activities such as writing biographies and essays comparing the British Empire and the Portuguese Empire and their explorers.

Unfortunately, the richness and diversity of cultural references to native and non-native countries and international topics in Year 12 materials was not found in the other materials analyzed. There is no doubt that it is highly beneficial to students who are going to continue their higher education in Humanities courses to possess extensive knowledge of American and British cultures and their influence on international affairs. However, a similar approach could be adopted in the other years. If native and non-native cultures were increasingly represented in classroom materials through the years, all students would gain.

4.3.2.5. The 1995 ELT Syllabus for Basic Education vs. the 2001 Basic Education National Curriculum

After comparing the sets of materials which follow the 1995 syllabus (Years 7 and 9) with the ones published after the 2001 guidelines (Year 8), no major change was identified. As for the new materials, while *Plunge* shows an increase in the number of references to other ENL and ESL cultures, the same tendency was not found in *Cool Zone*. Moreover, both *Plunge* and *Cool Zone* did not display an increase in the number of international references and references to EFL cultures and Portugal. Among the 1995 materials, *Aerial 7* and *Teen Time 3* presented more references to EFL countries when compared to all other sets.

4.3.2.6. The 1995 ELT Syllabus for Secondary Education vs. the 2002 Secondary Education Reform

Based on the guidelines of the 2002 Reform emphasizing the international role of English and focusing on English-speaking cultures as opposed to the Anglo-American approach of the previous 1995 syllabus, it could be expected that the new classroom materials would manifest these changes. Fundamentally, no major changes were

observed in the new materials. First, the highest number of references to the US and UK was found in *Meanings*, a set which follows the 1995 syllabus. Moreover, the new materials (*Englishes* and *Global*) did not reveal a significant increase in the number of references to English-speaking cultures (native and non-native). In fact, *Global* displayed a much lower number of references compared to *Englishes*. As for EFL cultures, *Englishes* displayed the highest number of references while *Global* indicated an increase in the number of references to Portugal.

4.3.3. Comparing the two perspectives of analysis: language and cultural references

After comparing the findings in the two perspectives of analysis, a few interesting comments can be made. Among the materials which made more references to the differences between AmE and BrE, only *Teen Time 3* showed a great number of cultural references to the US and UK. Also, as all materials made more use of BrE than AmE, most of them made more references to the UK than to the US. However, it is interesting to note that *Meanings* made more cultural references to the US than the UK and presented and used more features of AmE than most of the remaining sets of materials. In addition, although few references to and uses of other ENL and ESL varieties were made, *Plunge* was the only set to consistently include use of and references to ENL and ESL varieties and cultures, sometimes displaying the highest number of references among the materials analyzed. Finally, it is essential to highlight the findings in the Year 12 materials. Not only have they exhibited a great number of cultural references to the US and UK, but they also include references to differences between AmE and BrE, references to features of AmE and BrE, and use both BrE and AmE features.

4.4. ELT syllabi and classroom materials: converging or diverging?

The findings of the materials analysis clearly point out that there is an emphasis on BrE and UK culture as all materials displayed more features of BrE than AmE and most of them made more references to the UK than the US. However, AmE is identified in all but one set of materials, indicating that there is some need to present an Anglo-American outlook of the English language.

Although apparently these findings seem to support the view that materials have assimilated what was proposed in the 1995 English syllabus for basic and secondary education, after careful examination it becomes evident that most of these materials are not fully adopting the syllabus guidelines. The emphasis on British culture found in the materials analysed does not conform to the syllabus references to a balanced approach to Anglo-American cultures (see Table 4.1). Moreover, even though the syllabus suggests the presentation of differences between AmE and BrE in all levels (2nd *ciclo*, 3rd *ciclo* and secondary), out of the eight sets of materials published after the 1995 syllabus was implemented, three of them did not make any reference to differences between the two varieties (*Aerial 7*, *Weblines* and *Meanings*) and one set presented only a couple of references (*Project 3*). As for the two sets of materials published after the 2001 educational reform which made no changes to the ELT syllabus for basic education, one set made only one reference (*Cool Zone*) and the other set made no references to differences between AmE and BrE (*Plunge*). This clearly indicates that distinctive features of these varieties are not relevant in the new materials.

As far as other native and non-native varieties and cultures are concerned, there is an emphasis on cultural references rather than on linguistic ones. While few materials made references to or used other native and non-native varieties, there are a number of references to ESL and EFL countries and international topics. Furthermore, considering that the 2002 secondary education reform eliminates all references to American and British cultures and instead stresses the international scope of the English language and English-speaking cultures, it would be expected that references to native (other than American and British) varieties and cultures in more recently published material would have increased. However, that did not seem to have happened. The sets of secondary level materials which follow the 2002 guidelines presented some references to native and non-native cultures but they did not make any reference to native and non-native varieties. Curiously, one set of basic education materials published after the implementation of the 2002 secondary reform (*Plunge*) displayed the highest number of references to other native and ESL cultures among all sets analyzed. Can that be an indication that basic education materials may be moving from an Anglo-American to a more internationally oriented approach to ELT?

4.5. Summary of chapter

This chapter attempted to examine how the ELT national policies and classroom materials presented English as an international language. By and large, the three documents analysed identified several aspects related to the global scope of English. First, the 1995 syllabus for basic and secondary education emphasizes an approach to English through American and British cultures and varieties. Second, the 2001 basic education curriculum reinforces the acquisition of intercultural skills as one of the central goals in foreign language learning. Finally, the 2002 secondary education syllabus widens the scope of English learning and teaching by incorporating English-speaking cultures.

Conversely, the materials analysed presented aspects of EIL only to a certain extent. Clearly, the emphasis is on BrE and British culture. But while some materials introduced English-speaking cultures, especially native ones, few references were made to linguistic features of native and non-native varieties. On reflection, the incorporation of native and non-native English-speaking cultures and varieties in materials did not seem to reach significant levels.

However, while it is essential to examine what documents say about English as a global language, it is as essential to identify students' and teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards key aspects of EIL for two main reasons. First of all, because without their views about learning and teaching English, it is not possible to have an overall picture of ELT in Portugal today. And second, because documents and materials usually function as suggestions of activities to be engaged with in the classroom, students' and teachers' beliefs may shed some light on what actually happens in the classroom. Therefore, the following chapters will attempt to examine students' and teachers' attitudes toward aspects of EIL such as the linguistic dimensions (Chapter 5), the cultural dimensions (Chapter 6), and issues of language affiliation (Chapter 7).

Chapter 5: The practice of EIL in Portugal I – attitudes toward the linguistic dimensions of EIL

5.1. Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the discussion of the subjects' attitudes toward the linguistic dimensions of EIL. It discusses data gathered from the students' and teachers' questionnaires and interviews which partly answer research question 2, developed into three lines of inquiry (questions 2a, 2b and 2c)³¹:

2. How does the *practice* of ELT in Portugal today represent English as an international language?

2.a. What are the students' attitudes toward EIL?

2.b. What are the teachers' attitudes toward EIL?

2.c. Are there significant differences between the students' and the teachers' attitudes toward EIL?

The linguistic dimensions of EIL are manifested and examined through the following domains: (a) subjects' familiarity with English varieties and accents, (b) subjects' attitudes toward learning/teaching varieties, (c) students' reaction to native and non-native accents, (d) students' liking and desire for native and non-native accents, (e) students' identification of native and non-native speakers' origin, and (f) subjects' attitudes toward mixing varieties (AmE/BrE) or consistency in one.

The subjects' remarks about each of the above aspects were interpreted based on how close they were to either a linguacentred (see section 2.8) or a more international approach to English. Essentially, a linguacentred approach is one which focuses predominantly on Standard British English – and to a certain extent, Standard American English – while an international approach attempts to represent English in all its global diversity. However, according to the findings of this study, these are just the extreme ends along a continuum of numerous points of view, and users of English today usually

³¹ These research questions are further answered in Chapter 6 (The practice of EIL in Portugal II – attitudes toward the cultural dimensions of EIL) and Chapter 7 (The practice of EIL in Portugal III – attitudes toward issues of language affiliation).

maintain a set of attitudes which display characteristics of both linguacentred and international approaches to English to a greater or lesser degree.

Fundamentally, subjects exhibited a more linguacentred attitude toward English. Although they occasionally gave evidence of some flexible and tolerant views of learning and using English, especially as regards their attitudes toward learning international features of English and mixing BrE and AmE, most of their opinions relate English learning and using to the British variety, and to a lesser extent, to American English as well. It is essential to stress that in the Portuguese context, accepting the influence and importance of AmE is already a sign that the student or teacher recognizes the use of English as a language of international communication (see the role of AmE and American culture in the documents and classroom materials examined in Chapter 4).

5.2. Familiarity with English varieties and accents

This section reports on findings from questionnaires and interviews about students' and teachers' familiarity³² with English varieties (BrE, AmE, other native varieties, ESL varieties and EFL accents) (see section 2.3) and the reasons some teachers choose to introduce or not native and non-native varieties in their classes (see section 2.7 for a discussion on the role of native varieties in TEIL). In any attempt to characterize attitudes toward EIL, it is vital to identify the language user's familiarity with native and non-native varieties and accents. The extent of one's view of English as a global language might be related to one's acquaintance with different varieties of the language. However, this is an under-researched area and not much has been done in previous researches to ascertain learners' and teachers' familiarity with English varieties.

5.2.1. Students' self-reported familiarity with English varieties/accents

³² The questions in the questionnaire and interview did not attempt to assess the subject's ability to identify and understand accents, but rather, they referred to the subject's self-reported familiarity with varieties/accents of English.

When asked in the questionnaire (Section III, question 9) about their familiarity with BrE, AmE, other native varieties, ESL varieties and EFL accents, students replied that they are mostly familiar with BrE (96.4%) and AmE (96.0%) (Table 5.1).

Variety/accent	%
BrE	96.4
AmE	96.0
EFL accents	55.1
Other ENL varieties	48.2
ESL varieties	14.6

(N=247)

Table 5.1: Students’ self-reported familiarity with English varieties and accents

These results endorse Preisler’s (1999:248) findings from a questionnaire submitted to a sample of the Danish adult population where 81% answered that they considered themselves capable of distinguishing between American and British English.

In spite of the high percentages related to familiarity with BrE and AmE, some teachers provided quite interesting comments about their students’ perception of AmE and BrE and the lack of real knowledge of these two varieties:

ST01³³: *Sometimes I see that students come here saying that British English is the most perfect English (...) and that everyone should learn and use it. (...) Curiously, when they listen to some tapes, they say, for instance, that the most agreeable and intelligible accent was the American accent but at the same time they said this accent was British English. In other words, there’s a lot of confusion in the students’ minds.*

ST02: *Many times I think they’re not aware of the differences. (...) Sometimes I see students spelling a word with a single ‘l’ and other times with double ‘l’. For me, it means that the student cannot establish the differences.*

³³ ST=School of Tourism; SE=School of Education; UE= University of Evora; UL=University of Lisbon

UE01: *They know there's a general distinction but (...) in individual items they probably don't know. (...) Normally they produce American words. But I assume that if they knew there was a British word then they would probably use it with me*³⁴.

In other words, while students report having a strong familiarity with both BrE and AmE, many teachers point out that, in fact, students do not usually show knowledge of the differences between these two varieties.

Friedrich (2002: 442), in a survey which targeted attitudes with regard to English and its varieties involving around 300 EFL students in Argentina and Brazil, reported “a lack of awareness in both communities of the existence of other varieties besides American and British English”. However, the present study showed that students reported being somewhat familiar with other varieties.

An interesting aspect to note in the results is that EFL accents achieved higher percentages than other native and non-native varieties. However, it is very unlikely that this familiarity with EFL accents is the result of classroom activities, as little about those accents is explored in pedagogic materials (see section 4.3.1.3 and Table 4.6). Instead, students have probably become aware of the features of non-native English through communicative exchanges with EFL speakers or through the media. One subject stated in the interview that what he learned about EFL and ESL accents was through television or through films, not in the classroom.

In the interview, students were asked if they knew the characteristics of the English used by EFL speakers. One subject said that she could identify Spanish, French, Portuguese and Brazilian speakers of English while another subject said she thought she could identify German, Italian, Spanish and French speakers. It is interesting to note that the EFL speakers mentioned were either from European countries or speakers who share the subjects' first language (Brazilians).

³⁴ The subject is from the UK.

Results also showed that almost half of the students reported having some familiarity with native varieties of English other than BrE and AmE. In the interview some subjects stated that they thought they could recognize varieties such as Irish English, Australian English, and Scottish English (see section 4.3.1.3 and Table 4.6).

Finally, results showed that students seem to be very unfamiliar with ESL varieties of English. In the interview, no subject was able to provide examples of ESL varieties which they thought they could identify. On the other hand, one subject seemed to relate ESL varieties not with specific countries but with regions instead:

UL001: *Especially because of the intonation and sometimes because of the pronunciation, there are characteristics [of ESL varieties] which one can identify and relate to a specific region.*

Similarly, another subject talked about African speakers of English as a homogeneous group:

SE010: *I believe Africans have a very peculiar intonation which has to do with the dialects they speak so I think an African speaker is easily recognizable.*

Variables analysis

Statistically significant differences were found in the analysis of questionnaire data in the following four categories of variables: affiliation, course, length of time studying English and spending time outside Portugal.

A. Affiliation

Differences between the two types of affiliation (university students and polytechnic students) were found only in their familiarity with EFL accents (Sig. .026; $p < .05$). In other words, university and polytechnic students have different degrees of familiarity with EFL accents (Appendix 5.1). Even though this option came in third place in both groups of students, the different percentages indicate that polytechnic students (63.2%) are more familiar with EFL accents than university students (48.9%).

B. Course

Differences between the two types of courses (teacher trainees and ESP students) were also found in their self-reported familiarity with EFL accents (Sig. .001; $p < .05$). Teacher trainees and ESP students show different degrees of familiarity with EFL accents (Appendix 5.2). Although both groups placed familiarity with EFL accents in the third position, results indicate that familiarity with EFL accents is stronger in English teacher trainees (69.7%) than in ESP students (46.8%).

C. Length of time studying English

As far as EFL accents are concerned, there were significant differences (Sig. .000; $p < .05$) according to the length of time students have been studying English. The percentage of students who report being familiar with EFL accents steadily grows as students spend more time studying English, from 28.6% in the 1 to 6 years group, 45.1% in the 7 to 9 years group, 54.3% in the 10 to 12 years group, to 80% in the more than 12 years group (Appendix 5.3).

Moreover, chi-square tests have shown significant differences (Sig. .028; $p < .05$) for ENL varieties. Although the increase in percentage along the years of study is not as consistent as in the case of EFL accents, there is also an increase from 28.6% in the 1 to 6 years group to 63.3% in the more than 12 years group (7 to 9 years = 46.1%; 10 to 12 years = 41.4%) (Appendix 5.4).

D. Spending time outside Portugal

In this variable, statistically significant differences were only found in the students' familiarity with ESL varieties (Sig. .007; $p < .05$). Even though both groups of students placed this option in the last position and the overall results show very little familiarity with these varieties, it seems that students who have spent some time outside Portugal are more familiar with ESL varieties as 24.3% said so against only 10.7% of the students who have not spent time outside Portugal (Appendix 5.5).

On the whole, the analysis of the variables indicates that polytechnic teacher trainees who have been studying English for more than 12 years are more likely to be familiar with EFL accents than the other subjects. The length of time subjects have learned English seems also to influence their familiarity with native varieties. These results indicate that the students’ awareness of native varieties other than AmE and BrE might rise in the more advanced years of study. Finally, students who lived or spent some time outside Portugal became more familiar with ESL varieties than those who never spent time abroad. This might be explained by the fact that 73.9% of those who have been abroad stayed in non-English speaking countries (see section 3.6.1.1.). However, this study did not aim to find precise explanations for differences found in the variables analysis. Rather, it hoped to point out relevant areas which will need to be further analysed.

5.2.2. Teachers’ self-reported familiarity with English varieties/accents

Teachers were also asked about their familiarity with BrE, AmE, other native varieties, ESL varieties and EFL accents (questionnaire Section II, question 10). Not surprisingly, teachers replied that they had a very high degree of familiarity with BrE and AmE. It is interesting to note that EFL accents achieved a high percentage of familiarity as well. Furthermore, most teachers reported being familiar with other native varieties but a much smaller percentage of subjects said that they are familiar with ESL varieties (Table 5.2).

Variety/accent	%
BrE	96.2
AmE	96.2
EFL accents	88.5
Other ENL varieties	65.4
ESL varieties	30.8

(N=26)

Table 5.2: Teachers’ self-reported familiarity with English varieties and accents

Comparing the findings from students' and teachers' responses, it is interesting to see that both groups display the same order of familiarity with native and non-native varieties and accents. If, on the one hand, BrE and AmE are given quite similar percentages by students and teachers, teachers are more familiar with other native and non-native varieties and EFL accents. Finally, students and teachers reported being more familiar with EFL accents than non-native and native varieties other than BrE and AmE.

5.3. Learning and teaching varieties

In order to build a coherent picture of EIL in Portugal, this study also attempted, qualitatively and quantitatively, to capture students' and teachers' attitudes toward learning and teaching English varieties (see section 2.7). Three relevant areas were identified: attitudes toward the two major varieties of English, BrE and AmE; attitudes toward other native and non-native varieties; and attitudes toward different types of linguistic variation. In the questionnaire, subjects reacted to five statements in a Likert-scale (students' questionnaire Section III, question 10; teachers' questionnaire Section II, question 11) about the importance of the following items: learning the differences between AmE and BrE and where they are used; knowing other varieties besides AmE and BrE; learning about English spoken by non-native speakers; knowing the linguistic variation and varieties of many types: national, regional, social and international; knowing features of English which can be understood internationally, not just in one or two countries.

5.3.1. Students' attitudes towards learning varieties

Results show that 90.6% *strongly agree/agree* that it is important to learn about the features of English which can be understood internationally, not just in one or two countries. This high percentage clearly indicates that students recognize the international significance of the English language. The perceived importance of learning varieties was also indicated by the following results: 75.5% of the students *strongly agree/agree* that it is important to learn the differences between AmE and BrE and where they are used while 60.5% *strongly agree/agree* that it is important to know the linguistic variation and varieties of many types: national, regional, social, functional,

international. Similarly, 57.9% *strongly agree/agree* that it is important to know other varieties besides AmE and BrE (see Table 5.3 for the overall percentages for each statement and response).

	It is important to learn the differences between AmE and BrE and where they are used		It is important to know other varieties besides AmE and BrE		It is important to learn about English spoken by non-native speakers		It is important to know the linguistic variation and varieties of many types: national, regional, social and international		It is important to learn the features of English that can be understood internationally not just in one or two countries	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Strongly agree	67	27.3	41	16.7	14	5.8	36	14.8	139	56.5
Agree	118	48.2	101	41.2	58	23.9	111	45.7	84	34.1
Neither agree/ disagree	43	17.6	81	33.1	105	43.2	75	30.9	16	6.5
Disagree	14	5.7	17	6.9	54	22.2	18	7.4	6	2.4
Strongly disagree	3	1.2	5	2.0	12	4.9	3	1.2	1	.4
Total	245	100.0	245	100.0	243	100.0	243	100.0	246	100.0

Table 5.3: Overall percentages for each statement and response (students)

However, 43.2% of the subjects *neither agree nor disagree* and 22.2% *disagree* that it is important to learn about English spoken by non-native speakers. The students’ aim of learning native varieties may be illustrated by the following interview excerpt, when one subject argued that non-native varieties should not be taken as language models:

UE051: *I think the more varieties we come across, the more positive it is. We can see both native and non-native countries, see the differences and similarities among the many situations and countries. I think that is positive. But we should be warned not to acquire incorrect habits.*

There seems to be a perception of non-native varieties as non-standard forms of the language and that learning should only deal with standard native varieties.

These findings seem to reinforce the relevance of BrE and AmE (see section 2.2 for a discussion of the role of these two varieties in the global context of English). When asked about the importance of studying English varieties in the interview, some subjects believed that more emphasis should be given to BrE and AmE:

UE006: *It's not important, at least not for me. Because what we really try to do is to imitate the English or maybe the Americans.*

ST032: *I think the importance of the countries also influence our learning. So, as we're probably going to deal more often with Americans and British, they'll be privileged.*

One subject added that students should be able to choose which variety to use:

UL033: *I believe both [AmE and BrE] should be taught. The teacher usually identifies himself with one or the other and will teach according to the variety he prefers but he should always teach both so that the student can eventually choose the one he prefers.*

However, two subjects indicated that BrE should be given a more prominent role:

UL033: *I think it's important but when we learn English we learn it through the standards and it's usually the British standard.*

SE008: *It's important to have a wider knowledge of every type of native English but always emphasizing BrE.*

Curiously, this subject showed later on that the choice of BrE as the standard to be learned is not so straightforward and clear in the students' minds:

SE008: *Maybe I'm going against my own opinion because I think AmE is easier to speak. I'm a little conservative (...) I like AmE better but I think in general it should be BrE.*

Finally, other subjects provided some interesting opinions about AmE, BrE and other native varieties:

UE006: *We cannot deny that AmE is a strong influence upon us but it's not pretty English!*

UL033: *AmE is very... how can I put it? Not so musical. BrE is very musical. Scottish English and Irish English are even more musical so (...) I'd like to speak like them.*

SE008: *The American accent seems to be easier [to understand] than the British accent. (...) The British people have that sort of cold way of speaking. Americans are not quite like that.*

SE010: *The British seem not to go with the flow, they are very sure of their language and have no language borrowings.*

These remarks demonstrate how subjective dealing with English varieties is. Put simply, AmE can be 'easy' but at the same time 'not pretty' while BrE is 'musical' but 'cold'.

Although the students' preference for BrE, and to some extent AmE, is evident in the interviews, some subjects reacted positively to being exposed other varieties. While some subjects believed that students should have just some basic knowledge of other varieties besides AmE and BrE, others remarked that some contact with other varieties could be beneficial:

UL033: *I think it's important to call attention to them, otherwise students might get used to listening to just one variety and may have difficulty later on in understanding and adapting the ear to other varieties of English.*

ST032: *If we could have some contact with these differences, maybe the learner would get more used to the characteristics of the many speakers of other nationalities.*

SE008: *I think it's important to try to understand the accents because sometimes some accents are difficult to understand. [We should] try to listen to (...) some recordings.*

All in all, students displayed a very positive attitude towards learning English varieties (international features of English; differences between AmE and BrE; national, regional,

social and international variation; other varieties besides AmE and BrE). However, students did not see much relevance in learning about non-native varieties. Their lack of interest in these varieties corresponded to their lack of familiarity with non-native varieties (see section 5.2.1.).

Variables analysis

After crosstabulating the questionnaire results, statistically significant differences were found in the students' institutional affiliation, course and length of time studying English.

A. Affiliation

The Mann-Whitney test showed differences between university students' and polytechnic students' attitudes toward learning linguistic variation of many types (national, regional, social and international) (Asymp. Sig. 2-tailed .011; $p < .05$) and learning the differences between AmE and BrE (Asymp. Sig. 2-tailed .008; $p < .05$) as polytechnic students showed a more positive reaction toward both statements (see Appendix 5.6 for the mean ranks of university and polytechnic students where there were statistically significant differences).

B. Course

After applying the Kruskal Wallis test, differences were found in the students' opinion about learning linguistic variation of many types (Asymp. Sig. 2-tailed .008; $p < .05$), learning the differences between AmE and BrE (Asymp. Sig. 2-tailed .007; $p < .05$), and learning about other varieties besides AmE and BrE (Asymp. Sig. 2-tailed .001; $p < .05$). Teacher trainees displayed a more positive attitude toward these three statements than ESP students did (see Appendix 5.7 for the mean ranks of teacher trainees and ESP students where there were statistically significant differences).

C. Length of time studying English

The Kruskal Wallis test showed differences in the students' attitude toward learning about English spoken by non-native speakers (Asymp. Sig. 2-tailed .019; $p < .05$), learning linguistic variation of many types (Asymp. Sig. 2-tailed .009; $p < .05$), and learning the differences between AmE and BrE (Asymp. Sig. 2-tailed .004; $p < .05$). On the one hand, the less time students have been studying English, the more positive they perceive learning about the English used by non-native speakers. On the other hand, the longer the students have been studying English, the more positively they react to learning about linguistic variation of many types and learning the differences between AmE and BrE (see Appendix 5.8 for the mean ranks of the four lengths of time where there were statistically significant differences).

It is interesting to observe that teacher trainees reacted more positively toward learning varieties (linguistic variation of many types, differences between AmE and BrE, and other varieties besides AmE/BrE) than ESP students. It seems that although ELT may be centred on the British variety (see section 2.7), the teacher trainees in this study demonstrated being receptive to a more international approach to the language.

Moreover, learning English for a longer period of time seems to influence the students' attitude toward learning varieties. However, while spending more time learning the language leads to favourable attitudes toward learning linguistic variation of many types and learning the differences between AmE and BrE, it also influences the students into regarding learning about the English spoken by non-native speakers as not important. On reflection, this may be caused by the usual emphasis put on BrE and AmE in ELT and the lack of references to non-native English.

5.3.2. Teachers' attitudes towards learning/teaching varieties

Data analysis shows that teachers hold a very positive attitude towards the learning of English varieties. The vast majority (92.0%) *strongly agree/agree* that it is important to know the features of English which can be understood internationally not just in one or two countries. Moreover, 84.7% of the teachers *strongly agree/agree* that it is important to learn the differences between AmE and BrE and where they are used while 83.3% *strongly agree/agree* that it is important to know the linguistic variation and varieties of

many types: national, regional, social, functional, international. Furthermore, 56% *strongly agree/agree* that it is important to know other varieties besides AmE and BrE. Teachers also showed a fair attitude toward learning non-native varieties as 50 % *strongly agree/agree* that it is important to learn about English spoken by non-native speakers (see Table 5.4 for the overall percentages for each statement and response).

	It is important to learn the differences between AmE and BrE and where they are used		It is important to know other varieties besides AmE and BrE		It is important to learn about English spoken by non-native speakers		It is important to know the linguistic variation and varieties of many types: national, regional, social and international		It is important to know the features of English which can be understood internationally not just in one or two countries	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Strongly agree	10	38.5	2	8.0	3	11.5	6	25.0	19	76.0
Agree	12	46.2	12	48.0	10	38.5	14	58.3	4	16.0
Neither agree/disagree	2	7.7	11	44.0	6	23.1	3	12.5	2	8.0
Disagree	2	7.7			7	26.9	1	4.2		
Total	26	100.0	25	100.0	26	100.0	24	100.0	25	100.0
Missing system			1				2		1	
Total			26				26		26	

Table 5.4: Overall percentages for each statement and response (teachers)

In the interviews, teachers were asked whether they introduced English native and non-native varieties in their classes and why they did or did not do so. Many subjects indicated that whenever necessary they show students the differences between AmE and BrE. Interestingly, one subject pointed out when teachers are most likely to do that:

ST02: *What I usually do is call their attention to that so they can be aware of those details. (...) What normally happens is that we end up correcting and explaining the alternative to student A, B or C and those students who don't reveal this kind of problem we tell them nothing about it. But perhaps these students only know one variety...*

However, a couple of subjects remarked that the presentation of the differences between the two varieties happens only when students produce characteristics of AmE, indicating that if they use BrE, teachers will probably not provide the AmE counterpart:

SE02: *I keep calling their attention (...) especially when they're characteristics of AmE. It's funny! I mean, when they write or spell something in BrE, I don't say 'Look, this is BrE'. (...) But when they're writing and suddenly there's something that is typically AmE, then I say 'Look, this is AmE', which indicates*

some kind of discrimination. (...) And also all materials they have contact with are usually in BrE, AmE comes as a contrast.

Two teachers referred to the distinction they make in terms of written and oral production and their attitudes toward the differences between AmE and BrE:

UE01: In terms of vocabulary, if I hear it, I will point out there's a difference because that can lead to some confusion between British and Americans, let alone non-native speakers.

SE02: I don't actually mind showing the differences in their oral production. They speak with the accents they have and I try to correct them having a universal standard in mind (...) I don't worry about that because I know that I myself don't follow the American standard or the British standard. (...) But I'm more careful in their written production.

Conversely, one subject did not seem to favour any variety:

UE03: Sometimes if I write 'color' on the board, spelt with an 'o' only, I ask them 'But can't it be with 'ou'?' and then I explain. (...) When this happens it's even an excuse to talk about other varieties. (...) I make a point of letting them know that both spellings are correct.

On the other hand, some subjects pointed out that they have given very little or no importance at all to the presentation of native varieties other than AmE and BrE:

UE01: It's not something that I would spend a lot of time on.

SE02: I don't care much about it.

SE01: I've never worked much on it.

UL02: It really hasn't been a focus.

The following reasons were provided:

- emphasis on BrE/AmE: *“They’re mostly exposed to BrE and AmE. So, we should put more emphasis on these two varieties and then explain ‘There are also other varieties which are linguistically as important as these two but as you’re not so exposed to them we’re going to give you fewer examples’”* (ST02);
- lack of time: *“I believe that ideally we would have so many teaching hours and know English so well that we could certainly cover all accents, all varieties. (...) Actually, this is not feasible”* (ST01);
- lack of relevance of varieties: *“There’s not much room for them because they’re varieties with little international penetration, (...) I think it wouldn’t be profitable in terms of future professional experience”* (UE04);
- lack of knowledge about varieties: *“I can’t do that because I don’t know them, I don’t know many varieties such as Canadian English, South African English, maybe a little bit of Australian English”* (UE03); *“It seems to me that teachers have less information about New Zealand English, Australian English, South African English...”* (SE02).

At the same time, two teachers commented on the advantages of developing the students’ receptive skills in native varieties of English:

UE01: *There are some wide pronunciation differences and it would be useful for them to be aware of those from the comprehension point of view.*

ST01: *[working on the comprehension skills] would probably lead to better results. If we wanted to work on the productive skills, besides being too hard and complicated, it would take forever.*

Generally speaking, in the interviews there were more positive than negative attitudes toward teaching ESL and EFL varieties and accents. For some subjects, this could be an “important”, “interesting” and “useful” learning experience. One subject even believed it could be of “greater importance to learn how a German speaks English than how a Scottish person speaks English” (UE01). Likewise, another subject seemed to view the inclusion of ESL and EFL varieties in the classroom as highly beneficial:

UE02: *I'd like to think that there's a tendency for this nowadays (...) but unfortunately we're mostly influenced by the thought which favours native varieties, especially BrE. (...) Students should have contact with as many varieties as possible. However, they don't go beyond the British and American varieties and it's definitely good when they see English [English] and [other] British varieties or English [English] and American [English] varieties or British and American varieties. (...) The more varieties they contact, the better it's going to be for them in the future.*

However, two other teachers did not consider exposure to non-native varieties an important activity:

ST02: *I'm not sure if it's linguistically important that students should be able to understand all varieties. I believe it's important that they have some awareness that there are different forms when non-natives use English but I don't think it's mandatory that they recognize all accents.*

UE04: *I don't think we should privilege these varieties (...), I think we should privilege standard English, British or American.*

Similarly, another subject emphasized the productive aspect in recommending BrE and AmE varieties:

SE03: *If possible, they should listen to native speakers because they are the models to be reproduced. I think it's positive to have some knowledge of how English is spoken in other countries but from the point of view of teaching I don't give it much importance. (...) How can this be used in terms of teaching or how important is it in terms of teaching? Honestly, I don't think it's important.*

Finally, another subject developed the issue of the most common varieties, BrE and AmE, and the importance of providing exposure to other varieties:

ST02: *It's important that the students get used to interacting with different types of pronunciation. (...) From a linguistic point of view, it's equally important that a student understands English as it is spoken in the UK and in India. But then, if we consider what actually happens, he's going to be more easily in contact with the English from the UK than from India. So, we can say that the choice is a bit political, isn't it? It is important that he understands the English spoken by the people he's going to meet. (...) I believe we can assume that BrE or AmE are our reference models and consequently work with them first and maybe later give some examples though I don't think we should spend too much time on it.*

Variables analysis

The analysis of the variables from questionnaire results indicated that statistically significant differences were found in the teachers' opinion about learning English used by non-natives as far as their institutional affiliation, spending time outside Portugal and language affiliation are concerned.

A. Affiliation

The different mean ranks in the four institutions (Sig. .008; $p < .05$) (Appendix 5.9) showed that the teachers at the University of Lisbon (UL) and the School of Tourism (ST) give more importance to learning about the English spoken by non-native speakers than teachers at the University of Evora (UE) and the School of Education (SE).

Although it is not possible to generalize about different university and polytechnic tendencies, one way to explain these results would be to consider the institutions' geographical locations (see Appendix 3.1). While UL and ST are situated in Portugal's main metropolitan area (Lisbon), UE and SE are established in the mostly rural and less developed region of Alentejo. However, further larger-scale investigation is necessary to establish if the characteristics of these two contrasting locations might cause different attitudes among teachers.

B. Spending time outside Portugal

Differences in the mean rank also indicated that teachers react differently toward learning non-native English depending on the type of country they have spent time in (Sig. .019; $p < .05$) (Appendix 5.10). Those who have been to both English speaking (ESC) and non-English speaking (NESC) countries attach more importance to learning about the English spoken by non-natives than teachers who have been to English speaking countries only.

The fact that some teachers had the experience of living or spending time in non-English-speaking countries may, then, contribute to an approach to English teaching which regards non-native varieties as an integral part of the learning process.

C. Language affiliation

Significant differences were also found between native and non-native teachers and their attitudes toward learning features of English which can be understood internationally (Sig. .029; $p < .05$) (Appendix 5.11). Results showed that non-native teachers have a more positive view toward learning international features of English than native teachers.

The fact that non-native teachers are more sensitive to an international perspective on English may be explained by the characteristics of their own language learning experience. The non-native teachers in this study are Portuguese speakers and as such have learned English as a foreign language. For them, English is not representative of their own culture but rather a language to be used in a variety of contexts with speakers of different languages. In the interview, one non-native teacher commented on the type of English he learned:

UE02: *The English I had contact with was a language with no traits of a particular nationality, which I consider correct, with few native characteristics of a particular country or culture. It's English as a vehicle of international communication.*

On the basis of analysis of both students' and teachers' data, it is clearly the case that most subjects believe it is important to learn English varieties. The vast majority of students and teachers regard international features of English and the differences between AmE and BrE as significant topics to be learned. Also, students' and teachers' positive attitude toward learning English varieties other than AmE and BrE are quite similar. Most subjects also think that it is important to know varieties in general (national, regional, social and international) although teachers have a more positive attitude toward this issue.

In sum, these subjects seem to adopt a favourable attitude toward learning English varieties. However, there is still an apparent emphasis on presenting BrE as the model variety while at times showing the differences between this variety and AmE. As far as other varieties are concerned, there is no consensus on the value of exposing students to native and non-native features of English. Although some teachers acknowledged the importance of dealing with varieties other than AmE and BrE, they do not seem to have incorporated these varieties into their English lessons. In view of this, it would be quite relevant to gather evidence about the factual classroom practices associated with native and non-native varieties.

5.4. Students' attitudes toward native and non-native accents

This section reports the findings concerning the students' attitudes toward native and non-native English accents. First, it analyses data from the students' reaction to ENL, ESL and EFL speakers' accents based on a semantic differential scale. Then, it discusses the subjects' liking and desire for these native and non-native accents. Finally, it comments on the students' attempt to identify the origin of the speakers.

In order to perceive the attitudes of language users towards one of the major linguistic aspects of EIL – the diverse accents of English – (see sections 2.8.1.3 and 2.8.1.4) this study attempted, on the one hand, to determine a more comprehensive analysis of attitudes and, on the other hand, widen the scope of accents usually examined. Firstly, a thorough picture of the students' attitudes was investigated through four distinct issues: their reaction to accents based on five sets of adjectives (friendly/unfriendly, clear/unclear, polished/rough, no accent/strong accent, not funny/funny), their liking for

the accents, their desire for having a particular accent themselves, and their ability to identify the speaker's country of origin or language affiliation (native speaker, second language speaker, foreign language speaker). Secondly, this study presented samples of native and non-native accents, including a speaker of the students' own first language (Portuguese).

5.4.1. Reacting to accents on a semantic differential scale

Students were asked to react to ENL (British and American), ESL (Indian) and EFL (Portuguese and Spanish) accents according to five sets of adjectives in a semantic differential scale (questionnaire Section I, question 1). Scores that the students gave to each accent were averaged and the respective mean scores for the ENL, ESL and EFL speakers were calculated. Results showed that students reacted more positively toward the native accents than they did toward the ESL and EFL accents (see Appendix 5.12 for the means and standard deviations for the three groups of speakers).

Figure 5.1 shows the profile of the students' attitudes toward the accents. The lowest scores indicate a more positive reaction. This profile implies that the students might have been able to differentiate the native accents from the other accents as the mean scores for the ENL speakers were significantly lower than the mean scores for the ESL and EFL speakers. In other words, subjects distinguished the accents of the native speakers, whereas no distinction was made between the accents of the ESL and EFL speakers.

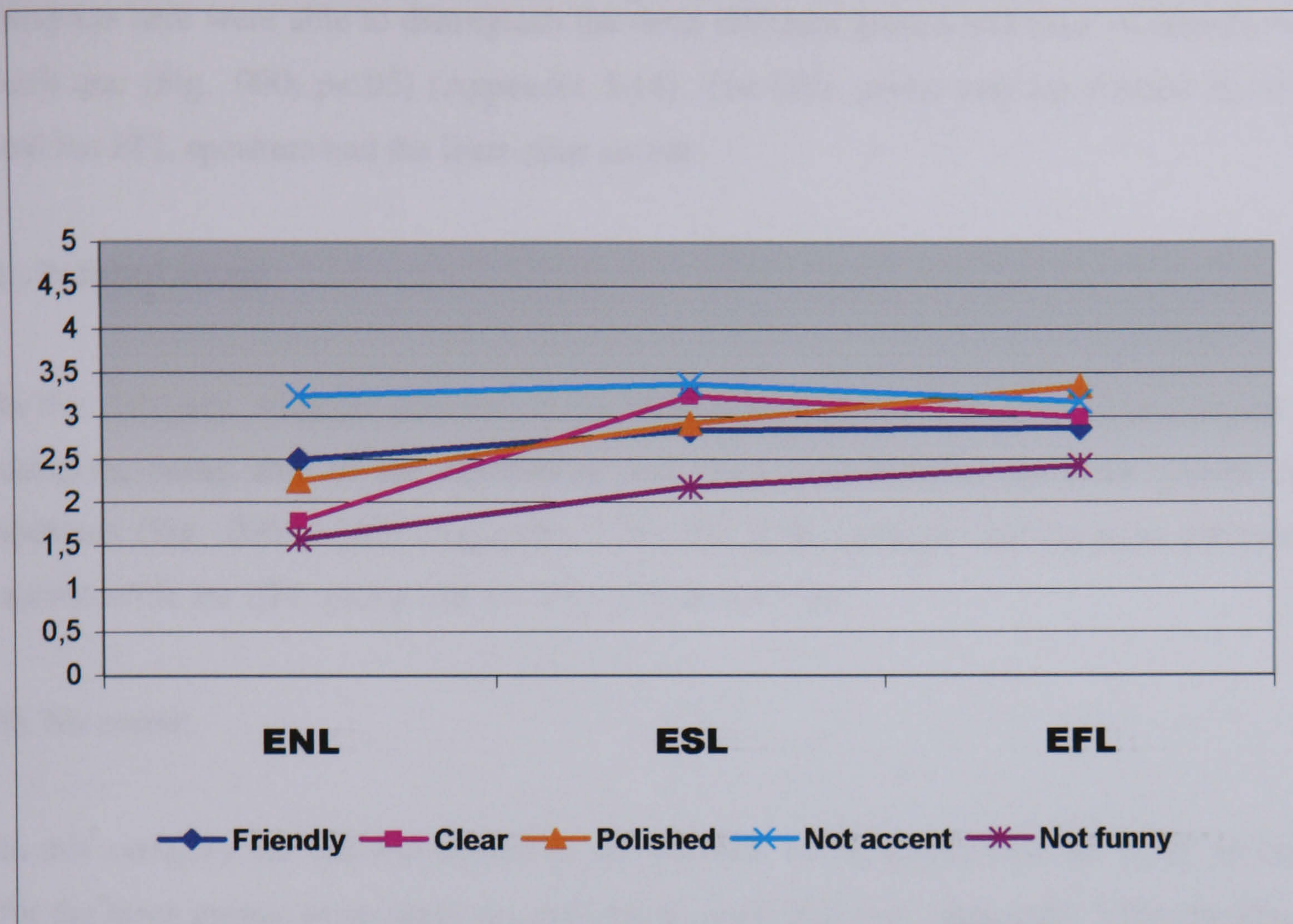


Figure 5.1: Profile of ratings given to ENL, ESL and EFL accents

5.4.1.1. Analysis of accent categories

Each category (*friendly accent*, *clear accent*, *polished accent*, *no accent* and *not funny accent*) was analysed, and statistically significant differences between groups were identified.

A. Friendly accent

In this category, students differentiated the ENL accents from the other accents and distinguished not three but two groups of speakers (Sig. .000; $p < .05$) (Appendix 5.13). In one group they placed the ENL speakers, identified as having the friendliest accents, and in the other group they put the ESL and EFL speakers, making no distinctions between them.

B. Clear accent

Students here were able to distinguish the three different groups and react differently to each one (Sig. .000; $p < .05$) (Appendix 5.14). The ENL group had the clearest accent and the EFL speakers had the least clear accent.

C. Polished accent

In this category, students behaved in the same way that they did in the “clear accent” category, being able to see differences and react differently to the three groups of speakers (Sig. .000; $p < .05$) (Appendix 5.15). The ENL speakers had the most polished accent while the EFL group had the least polished accent.

D. No accent

In this category the null hypothesis is not rejected, which means that the mean scores for the three groups of speakers are not significantly different (Appendix 5.16). In other words, students did not distinguish the ENL, ESL and EFL speakers as far as having an accent is concerned. This can be explained by the fact that subjects were given no directions on how to interpret the sets of adjectives in the semantic differential scale. ‘Having an accent’ or even ‘a strong accent’ depended solely on each student’s understanding of the concept. While some might have viewed the ENL speakers as having an accent, i.e. a ‘native accent’, others interpreted the task as identifying an accent in the non-native speakers, i.e. a ‘foreign ESL or EFL accent’. Although the researcher tried to avoid any sort of influence in the subjects’ response to the questionnaire, in order to overcome this problem some explanation of what an accent is should have been provided.

E. Not funny accent

Similar to the “clear accent” and “polished accent” categories, students see differences between the three groups of speakers (Sig. .000; $p < .05$) (Appendix 5.17). The mean scores show that the ENL group has the least funny accent while the EFL speakers have the funniest accent.

Students clearly regarded the ENL accents more positively in all categories. Such positive reactions toward the American and British speakers might be explained by the significant role played by these native varieties in ELT materials (see section 4.3). Not only are students more often in contact with British and American cultures and varieties but they are usually the linguistic models to be followed. Furthermore, students tended not to perceive distinctions between ESL and EFL accents. This might account for the little contact subjects have with these accents in the English classes. Finally, whenever students were able to see differences between ESL and EFL accents (clear accent, polished accent, not funny accent), they reacted more positively to ESL accents. Although students say they are more familiar with EFL than ESL accents (see section 5.2.1), they responded more favourably to the latter.

Variables analysis

Crosstabulation of the results showed that statistically significant differences were found according to the students' affiliation, course and length of time studying English.

A. Affiliation

Results showed that there are differences between university students and polytechnic students in the "friendly accent" category for the EFL group (Sig. .025; $p < .05$). Basically, polytechnic students regarded the EFL group's accent as more friendly than university students (Appendix 5.18).

B. Course

Results also showed that English teacher trainees regarded the ENL speakers more positively in the categories "clear accent" (Sig. .024; $p < .05$) and "not funny accent" (Sig. .048; $p < .05$) than ESP students (Appendix 5.19).

C. Length of time studying English

After comparing the results in each category of this variable, the length of time students have been studying English seemed to lead to different attitudes toward the EFL group

in the “friendly accent” category: the longer the students studied English, the more positively they viewed the EFL speakers’ accent (Sig. .041; $p < .05$) (Appendix 5.20).

Some meaningful remarks can be made on the basis of examination of the variables data. First, when compared to ESP students, teacher trainees showed a more positive attitude toward native speakers in the “clear accent” and “not funny accent” categories. This might be explained by the fact that teacher trainees are expected to model native accents in their future language classes and, as such, might be expected to hold a favourable impression of native accents.

Second, polytechnic students, as opposed to university students, had a more positive attitude toward EFL accents in the “friendly accent” category. This result can be related to the type of polytechnic students in this study: English language teacher trainees for primary education (elementary level) and ESP students in the Tourism area. A possible explanation can be that primary school English language teachers may not have to be concerned with modeling the students’ pronunciation after a native target, as opposed to teachers in more advanced levels (certainly there are also primary school teachers who give importance to native target pronunciation early in the initial stages of language learning). ESP students in Tourism, on the other hand, might be more aware of the diversity of English accents they will encounter in their future profession.

Finally, the length of time students have been studying English seems to influence their attitude toward EFL speakers’ accent as results showed that the longer they studied English, the more positively they reacted to EFL speakers in the “friendly accent” category. A possible explanation for this is that as students become more proficient in the language, though depending on their social situations, they might engage in more communicative exchanges with a greater variety of English users.

However, these results should only be interpreted as subtle indicators of different sets of attitudes which require further analysis in order to be fully explained.

5.4.2. Students’ liking for native and non-native accents

Students were requested to put the five accents in order of preference (questionnaire Section I, question 2). In the first place, 75.7% most liked the sound of the British speaker. Then, 43.3% of the students allocated the American speaker as the second most liked. Next, in the third position, came the speaker from Spain with 32.4% of the choices. In the fourth position, 34.4% of students allocated the Indian speaker. Finally, the speaker from Portugal was placed in the fifth position by 50.6% of the students. Table 5.5 shows the order of speakers in terms of whom the students most liked the sound of.

(N=242)

1 st		2 nd		3 rd		4 th		5 th	
Country	%	Country	%	Country	%	Country	%	Country	%
UK	75.7	US	43.3	SPA	32.4	IND	34.4	POR	50.6
US	13.4	UK	17.4	US	24.7	POR	25.5	IND	21.5
IND	4.9	SPA	17.4	IND	23.1	SPA	24.7	SPA	20.2
SPA	3.2	IND	13.8	POR	15.0	US	12.1	US	4.9
POR	.8	POR	6.1	UK	2.8	UK	1.2	UK	.8

Table 5.5: Students’ liking for accents

From these results, it can be suggested that students clearly know which accent they most like, i.e. the UK accent. However, we cannot affirm that they follow the same trend in allocating the candidates in the other positions. This is seen in the choice of candidate for the third and fourth positions, where the percentages of the candidates in the first, second, and third places are similar to each other. Although students reacted very positively towards both native accents (see section 5.4.1), they unquestionably preferred the British accent. Curiously, although the ESL accent received more positive scores than the EFL ones in some categories of the semantic differential scale – clear accent, polished accent, not funny accent – (see section 5.4.1), students chose an EFL accent (Spanish) as the third accent they liked most. Finally, half of the students agreed that the accent they least liked was the Portuguese one. This might indicate that the students have very little tolerance toward their own accent, which could be the result of a widespread belief that the Portuguese accent is very different from the ‘correct’ British accent.

5.4.3. Students’ desire for native and non-native accents

Subjects were then asked to order the five accents according to their desire to have that same accent (questionnaire Section I, question 3). In the first position, 74.5% of the students most wanted to sound like the British speaker. Next, 44.9% of the students placed the speaker from the US as their second choice. Then, in the third position came the Spanish speaker with 32.4%. In the fourth position, 34% of the students chose the Indian speaker. Finally, the speaker from Portugal was placed in the fifth position by 50.2% of the students. Table 5.6 shows the speakers in order of whom the students most wanted to sound like.

1 st (N=239)		2 nd (N=239)		3 rd (N=237)		4 th (N=237)		5 th (N=237)	
Country	%	Country	%	Country	%	Country	%	Country	%
UK	74.5	US	44.9	SPA	32.4	IND	34.0	POR	50.2
US	13.8	UK	16.2	US	23.9	SPA	25.5	IND	22.3
SPA	4.9	IND	15.4	IND	21.1	POR	24.3	SPA	18.6
IND	2.8	SPA	14.6	POR	15.0	US	10.9	US	3.6
POR	.8	POR	5.7	UK	3.6	UK	1.2	UK	1.2

Table 5.6: Students’ own desire for having an accent

Based on these results, it can be said that students clearly prefer to sound like the British speaker and that half of the students would not want to sound like the Portuguese speaker. Not surprisingly, students liked and wanted to sound like the accents in the same order, with the native accents at the top of the list. Interestingly, while the UK accent is clearly the one that subjects most appreciate and prefer to sound like, there is quite a negative reaction toward the Portuguese accent.

5.4.4. Students’ identification of the speaker’s origin

Subjects in the present study tried to guess the nationality of native and non-native speakers in two distinct tasks. First, they listened to five speakers recorded on a tape (questionnaire Section I, question 4) and, later on, the ten subjects who were interviewed watched a video during the interview where other native and non-native speakers talked about a common subject (the English language).

5.4.4.1. Listening to accents on tape

Subjects were asked to try to identify the country of origin of each speaker based on their accent. On the whole, results show that students are aware of the features of their own accent, as the vast majority was able to guess the nationality of the Portuguese speaker. Next, most subjects showed they were able to identify the native speakers, with a higher percentage of correct guesses for the speaker from the UK compared with the guesses for the American speaker. Nevertheless, not many students guessed correctly the nationality of the Indian speaker and very few students guessed correctly the nationality of the Spanish speaker. Figure 5.2 shows the percentage of correct identification of speakers' origin.

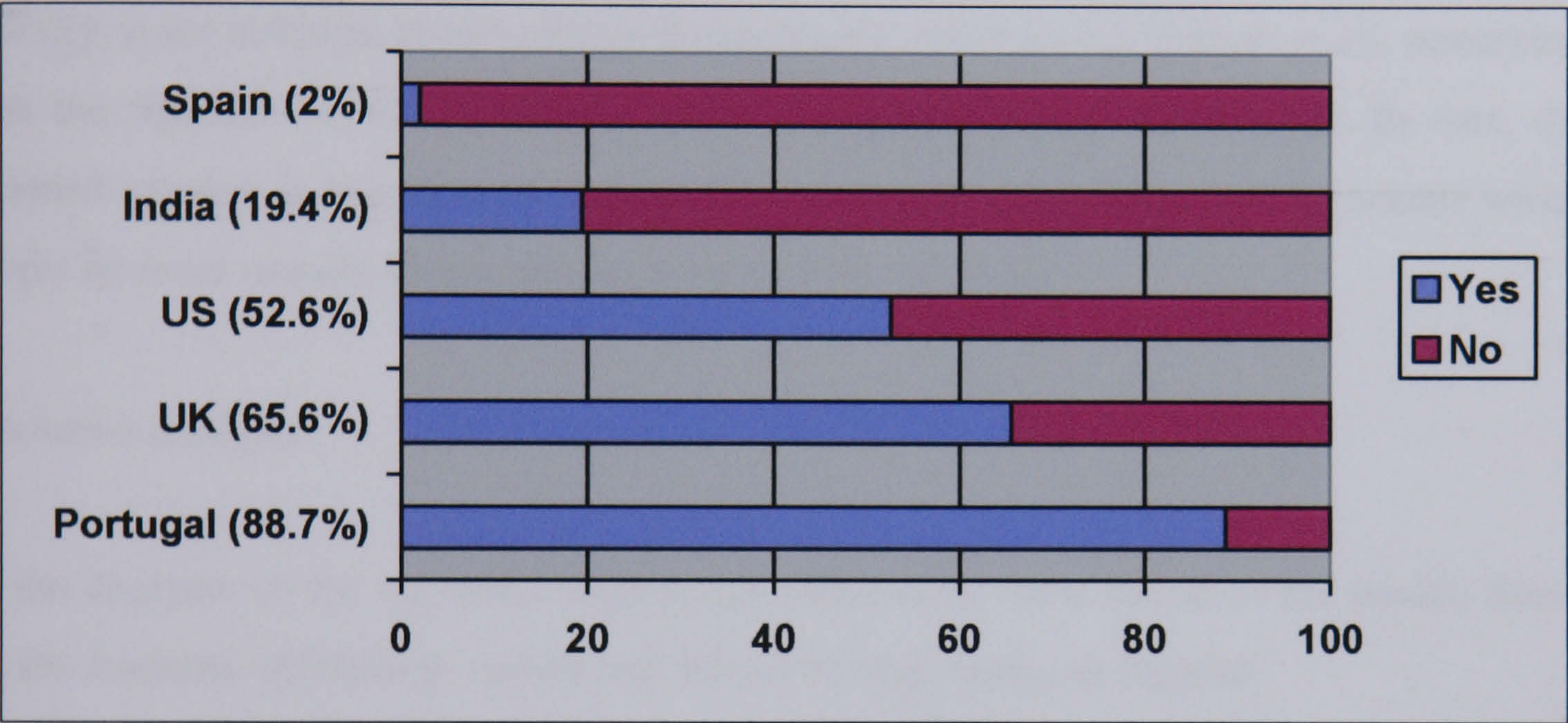


Figure 5.2: Identification of speakers' origin

Some comments can be made about the identification of the native speakers. First, results clearly indicate that students are more familiar with the British than the American accent, in spite of the increasing influence of the American variety in the students' daily life (see section 5.2.1 on the students' self-reported familiarity with English varieties/accents).

Second, not surprisingly 85.4% of the subjects correctly identified the British speaker as a native speaker while 76.9% of the students correctly identified the American speaker the same way (Appendix 5.21). It seems that the subjects are able to identify features of native accents though it is more difficult to point out the speaker's country of origin.

A similar remark can be made about the subjects' identification of the ESL and EFL speakers' origin. The identification of the Indian and Spanish speakers was not so

straightforward, as subjects indicated a wide range of native and non-native countries as those speakers' possible origins (see Appendix 5.22 for a complete list of suggested countries of origin of the five speakers). The low percentage of correct guesses for the Indian speaker confirms the students' stated opinion that they have very little familiarity with ESL varieties (see section 5.2.1). Moreover, although they stated being somewhat familiar with EFL accents (see section 5.2.1), almost no one was able to identify the origin of the Spanish speaker. One way of explaining this could be that although they might be more familiar with Spanish accents due to the proximity between Portugal and Spain, they did not relate the speaker's accent with their perception of the common Spanish accent. After being told about the speakers' nationalities at the end of the activity, some subjects observed that the speaker did not sound Spanish at all, remarking that the Spanish accent is usually quite strong and easily identifiable. In fact, the Spanish speaker in this activity did not have a clearly identifiable foreign accent which might be more usually found among Spanish EFL speakers.

Variables analysis

In the analysis of the variables, significant differences were found in the results based on the students' affiliation, course and length of time studying English.

A. Affiliation

Differences were found in the identification of the Portuguese speaker's origin (Sig. .033; $p < .05$) (Appendix 5.23). Although both university and polytechnic students achieved a high percentage of identification (90.1% and 97.1%, respectively), results show that polytechnic students are more successful in recognizing the nationality of the Portuguese speaker.

B. Course

Significant differences were found in the identification of the US (Sig. .025; $p < .05$) and UK speakers (Sig. .025; $p < .05$) (Appendix 5.24). First, ESP students (69.5%) were more able to recognize the American speaker than teacher trainees (53.9%). Second, teacher

trainees (81.5%) were more successful in identifying the speaker from the UK than ESP students (67.6%).

C. Length of time studying English

The length of time subjects have been studying English resulted in differences in their identification of the speakers from India (Sig. .002; $p < .05$) and the UK (Sig. .018; $p < .05$) (Appendix 5.25). Students who have been studying English for more than 12 years achieved better results in identifying both speakers' origins.

Even though statistically significant differences were found in all the above mentioned variables, it would be particularly worth trying to explain the different results between ESP students and teacher trainees. It would be relevant to further examine if these differences are due to an emphasis given to a BrE model in teacher training courses as opposed to a greater communication orientation, more influenced by the American variety, in ESP courses.

5.4.4.2. Watching a video with native and non-native speakers

At the beginning of the interview, students were asked to identify the gender, the age and the origin (nationality or language affiliation – ENL, ESL, EFL) of six speakers (2 ENL, 2 ESL and 2 EFL). The activity consisted of, first, listening to the speakers and, second, watching the video and listening to the same speakers in the situation presented before (see section 3.7.1 for a detailed explanation of the activity and Appendix 5.26 for the students' answers in each step of the activity).

A. The ENL speakers

Two subjects in the video were English native speakers, one from England (male) and the other from Ireland (female). After analysing the students' answers, it is clear that they seem to be more able to identify the nationality of the speaker from England as four students could do so whereas no one could guess the Irish speaker's nationality. For this speaker, it was easier to identify her language affiliation (ENL). However, the

number of correct guesses for these two speakers could have been higher if it were not for two *distractors*: the topic of the interview and the physical appearance of the speaker.

First, four students said that the English speaker could be an ESL or an EFL speaker because of what he was talking about. In his short talk, the speaker observed that sometimes it is difficult for him to be able to pronounce a word correctly. When this happens, he chooses to remain silent and not say anything. Put simply, regardless of the speaker's fluency, students did not believe this could happen to a native speaker. There were three students who said the speaker was probably native 'in spite of what he said'.

Second, physical appearance seemed to be a strong lead in helping students answer the question. Two students changed their minds after watching the video with the speaker from Ireland and after saying she was a native speaker, they said she spoke English as a second language because of her physical appearance (the speaker has Asian features as her Japanese parents immigrated to Ireland before she was born). Curiously, one student said she was a native speaker 'in spite of her appearance' (see section 2.5 for Brutt-Griffler and Samimy's native and non-native speakers' socially constructed identities).

B. The ESL speakers

The two ESL speakers in the video were from Malaysia (female) and the Republic of Cameroon (male). However, no one was able to identify their nationalities. Instead, some students were able to guess their language affiliation. It is interesting to point out that seven students said the male speaker was from Africa, though not specifying if from an ESL or EFL country.

Again, physical appearance seemed to be a relevant factor in this group of speakers. After watching the video, two students based their answers on the female speaker's physical appearance as she was wearing a *hijab*, the headscarf donned by some Muslim women. One student said she was from the Middle East and another said she was from India because of the clothes she was wearing.

C. The EFL speakers

The speakers in this group were from Cuba (female) and Syria (male). Similar to what happened in the ESL group, no student was able to identify the speakers' nationality. Instead, it seemed easier to identify their language affiliation.

D. Overall results

It is rather difficult to say if students were more able to identify one group of speakers better than the other two. If we consider the number of correct guesses in each group – ENL, ESL and EFL – these numbers are very similar, with around 50% of correct answers. However, students were able to identify the nationality of the English speaker. This might be explained by the fact that they are more used to being exposed to these speakers and their language variety in English classes and textbooks (see section 4.3.1). As far as the other native and non-native speakers are concerned, some students were able to identify their language affiliation rather than their nationality, which might also be explained by the students' lack of exposure to these varieties of English.

5.4.5. Students' attitudes toward native and non-native accents: concluding remarks

When considering the subjects' attitudes toward native and non-native accents (reaction to ENL, ESL and EFL accents based on a semantic differential scale, liking and desire for native and non-native accents and identification of the speakers' origin) a few comments can be made. Firstly, it is quite apparent that students can recognize the Portuguese accent but do not like or want to sound like it. Secondly, although students appreciate and want to sound like the native speakers, particularly the British, the percentage of subjects who were able to identify them is not so high (65% in the questionnaire activity and 40% in the video activity). Lastly, based on the numbers for the Spanish accent, liking and wanting to sound like an accent does not seem to depend on the students' identification of the accent's origin.

The video activity also provided some significant facts. Except for the British speaker, subjects tended to identify the speakers according to their language affiliation (speakers of ENL, ESL or EFL). But most importantly, some subjects were inclined to label the

speakers' use of English based on their physical appearance or the content of their talk. It is worth pointing out how the speakers' physical appearance and clothes may influence the listener's opinion about their origins. This activity has shown that people may be led to consider someone's language affiliation based on what they see and not on the features of the language they use. Also, this might be explained by the students' little or no familiarity with varieties of English other than BrE and, to some extent, AmE (see section 5.2.1). If, on the other hand, students become familiar with other varieties/accents, non-linguistic factors may eventually play no role in the language user's attitude and judgement of the interlocutor's English.

5.5. Using varieties: consistency or mixing?

BrE and AmE comprise the two major varieties in the international use of English. In the European ELT context, while BrE is the dominant variety in educational settings, the influence of AmE is deeply felt in the media and entertainment industries. EFL students are thus continually exposed to both varieties while in the educational context they might eventually be expected to raise their awareness as to choose between these two varieties or accept using features of both (see section 2.2.1).

This section reports on data about students' and teachers' attitudes toward consistency or mixing varieties in written or spoken language.

5.5.1. Students' data

Subjects were asked (in the interview and questionnaire Section III) if they thought it was important to be consistent in one variety or if there was no problem in mixing them. The majority of the answers fell into three major categories: (a) there is no problem in mixing varieties; (b) it is important to be consistent; and (c) both consistency and mixing are possible. Figure 5.3 shows the percentage of answers in each category:

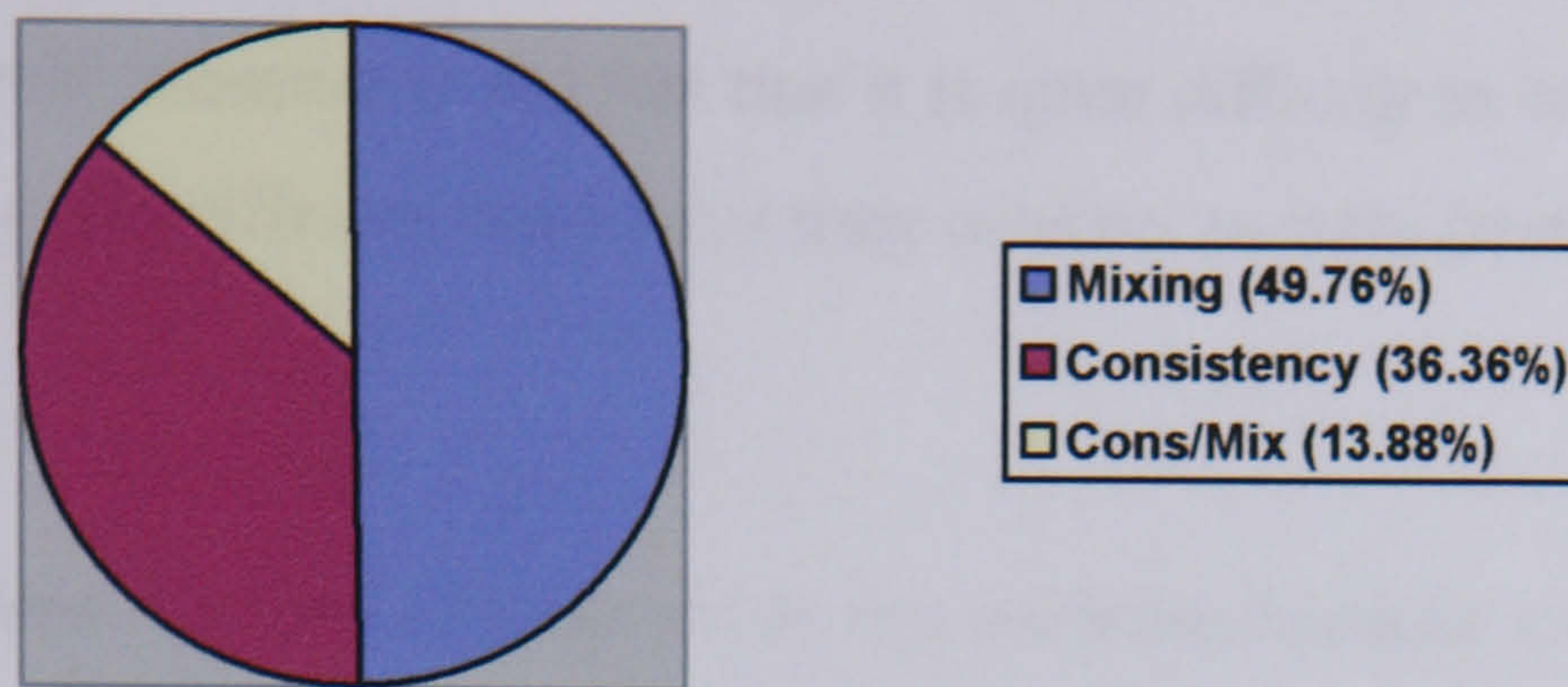


Figure 5.3: Answers in each category (%) (N=209)

Results demonstrate that students are somewhat divided. Although almost half of the subjects accept mixing varieties, a great number of students stress that consistency should be the target. In these circumstances, it becomes necessary to recognize the reasons the subjects point out for having these points of view.

A. Category *a*: there is no problem in mixing varieties

Subjects who said there is no problem in mixing varieties provided some interesting insights in the interviews. Quite a large number of students (N=44) said that mixing varieties is fine as long as there is *comprehension*:

UE042: *It's ok to mix varieties as long as we can be understood and able to understand.*

On the other hand, there were some students who emphasized *correctness* when mixing varieties:

ST030: *What is important is to speak correctly with no grammar or vocabulary mistakes.*

Other students referred to the idea of *comprehensibility* but this time emphasizing that mixing varieties increases our ability to understand and be understood by more speakers of the language:

ST043: *Mixing varieties makes it possible to understand more nationalities.*

Some other subjects drew attention to the fact that it is quite difficult to be consistent in one variety due to the many different *influences* they receive, namely from movies, TV, music and teachers:

UE027: *Nowadays it's very difficult not to mix varieties because even though we learn BrE in school we're constantly bombarded with AmE and American culture especially from the media and TV programmes.*

Finally, some students pointed out that mixing varieties can be a common practice with *non-native speakers* of English:

SE005: *Mixing varieties is normal for those who are non-natives.*

B. Category *b*: it is important to be consistent

Some issues were raised by students who said that it is important to be consistent. It is interesting to note that like some students who see no problem in mixing varieties, many students who aim for consistency also indicated *comprehensibility* as an important aspect to be considered. While 19 students said that consistency is important because it facilitates *comprehension*, 7 students mentioned that consistency is preferable because it gives the language more *coherence*.

Moreover, some other aspects of consistency were referred to:

- **correctness:** “*When mixing, we're making several grammar mistakes*” (UE072)
- **native speakers might react negatively:** “*When mixing varieties, we're offending the native speaker we're talking to*” (UE006)
- **each variety with its own native speaker:** “*The knowledge of other varieties of English might be very helpful when dealing with Americans, Australians, etc.*” (ST062)
- **it is easier to learn English:** “*Mixing might bring difficulties in learning the language*” (UE071)

- **knowledge of English:** “*Consistency shows that you do know both the language and the variety you’re using*” (SE016)

Basically, students remarked that consistency is important because they expect communication to be accurate as most of them believed that consistency leads to *comprehension, coherence and correctness*.

C. Category c: both consistency and mixing are possible

Many subjects said mixing is fine as long as it does not prevent the message from getting across. However, they added that consistency would be preferable as a matter of *coherence* and better *comprehension*. The problem, though, lies in actually being able to be consistent in just one variety:

UE054: *It’s not important if there’s some mixing as long as we are understood but if there’s no mixing you’ll be better understood.*

ST042: *It’d be important to use just one variety but I think it’s difficult to do it.*

Many said that such difficulty is caused by the several different *influences* on their language learning process, such as TV, music, movies, and teachers:

UL054: *Maybe the way we use English should be as coherent as possible, using just one variety. However, the means of communication and the diversity of teachers we have make this linguistic consistency very difficult to achieve.*

Some subjects mentioned that consistency is expected when producing *written language* while mixing can be accepted in *oral production*:

UL055: *At least in written English it’s important to be consistent in one variety so as not to confuse grammatical mistakes with linguistic varieties.*

Finally, many subjects indicated that consistency and mixing varieties might *depend on different contexts* of language use:

UL056: *It's important to be consistent in one variety especially if you're a teacher of English because this way students can learn just one variety. For other language users, I don't think it's important.*

D. Other comments

Besides revealing their opinions in the above mentioned categories, some students also called attention to other issues, such as BrE being the norm and the importance of developing receptive knowledge of different varieties.

- British English as the norm

Many students provided their personal attitude toward BrE as the target variety to be used through a series of short descriptions: *standard English, more real, more correct, ideal, more educated, more beautiful, more elegant, more adequate in formal situations, respects the norm.*

It is interesting to note that there were only three references to AmE, two positive (*"It's easier to speak and understand"*, ST049; *"I like AmE best although I admire BrE"*, UE011) and one negative (*"The American accent is many times very annoying"*, UE005).

(see section 5.3.1 for other students' attitudes toward BrE and AmE)

- Receptive knowledge of different varieties

Some subjects pointed out that having some knowledge or understanding of several varieties and knowing how to distinguish them is highly beneficial:

SE027: *It's convenient that the speaker should have some knowledge of the varieties and know how to distinguish them.*

In short, these comments reveal that for some subjects who prefer consistency BrE is the natural choice of variety to be used and even when consistency is expected, students should possess some receptive knowledge of different varieties.

Variables analysis

Relevant differences were found in the analysis of the students' comments based on their affiliation and course (Appendix 5.27):

- Most of the students who said there is no problem in mixing varieties and favoured comprehension were university and ESP students;
- Most students who emphasized correctness when mixing varieties were ESP students;
- All students who said that mixing varieties increases our ability to understand and be understood by more speakers of English were ESP students;
- Students who said that consistency is important if one is going to teach the language but mixing varieties would be acceptable in other language use contexts were university students and teacher trainees.

It is clear that most students who believed that there is no problem in mixing varieties as long as there is comprehension and correctness and that mixing varieties increases the language user's ability to understand and be understood are ESP students. On the other hand, all subjects who expect English teachers to be consistent are English teacher trainees themselves. These results seem to indicate a distinct tendency for ESP students to accept mixing varieties as opposed to teacher trainees who are expected to be consistent. It could also mean that ESP students are better prepared to deal with EIL. Rather than the number of students who made those remarks, what is important is their characteristics (ESP students vs. teacher trainees, university vs. polytechnic students). However, it is somewhat dangerous to generalize these findings. Instead, further analysis should be carried out as this goes beyond the scope of this investigation.

5.5.2. Teachers' data

Teachers were also asked (in the interview and questionnaire Section II, question 4) if they thought it was important to be consistent in one variety or there was no problem in mixing them. Again, most answers fell into three categories: a) there is no problem in mixing varieties; b) it is important to be consistent; and c) both consistency and mixing are possible.

A. Category *a*: there is no problem in mixing varieties

Several subjects said there is no problem in mixing varieties. Their explanations were built on three concepts: *comprehensibility*, *inevitability* and *native speakers mixing varieties*. Some subjects pointed out that mixing varieties is fine as long as there is comprehension.

UE02: *If the speaker uses British pronunciation in some words and American in others, for example, or vocabulary, as long as this does not prevent communication from happening in an international context, I see no problems with that.*

Other teachers emphasized that mixing varieties is inevitable:

ST02: *For a non-native speaker it's virtually impossible not to mix because he is exposed to this mixture.*

Finally, some subjects mentioned that even native speakers will eventually mix varieties:

UL04: *Increasingly BrE is getting closer to AmE, so...*

B. Category *b*: it is important to be consistent

The subjects who said that consistency is important referred to several reasons for having this opinion. One teacher stated that consistency might indicate *language competence* while another pointed out that consistency keeps the language *pure*:

UL08: *Students should be as consistent as possible in one variety. If they're consciously learning English, then it should be as 'pure' as possible, i.e. spoken and written in one identifiable variety.*

A couple of subjects called attention to the fact that although mixing varieties is usual and a natural result of the cultural *influence* of America, it would be preferable if students were consistent in just one. In one subject's opinion, this could be achieved if the student knew beforehand who he/she would use the language with and use the *native variety of that speaker*:

ST02: *If the students know that they're going to work for some British people, I think it'd be better if they tried to get closer to them. From a more professional point of view, it's a way of making the client feel good.*

This same subject pointed out that mixing varieties could sometimes be understood as lack of *knowledge about the language*:

ST02: *I'm not that bothered when I see words from different countries in the same text. I'm much more bothered when I see different spellings. For the sake of consistency, people should try to adopt the same variety when spelling especially when it's the same word, then I think it's important because otherwise I have the feeling that the student doesn't know how to spell that word.*

C. Category c: both consistency and mixing are possible

A few subjects indicated that consistency and mixing varieties might *depend on different contexts*. A few subjects said that teachers of English should be consistent as they will be models for their students:

SE03: *I believe they should find a variety which they identify themselves with and not use, in the same sentence, some words from BrE and others from AmE. I think there should be some consensus because they're going to be models for their students.*

For other language users, consistency is not an issue as their main goal is to communicate successfully.

Another subject pointed out that being consistent or mixing varieties will depend on the *mode of language use*:

UE01: *[Mixing varieties is not a] great problem in speech, but in formal writing [students] would be advised to stick to one variety.*

D. Other categories

Some teachers also called attention to another central issue, namely the *receptive knowledge of different varieties*. Some pointed out that language users should be able to recognize and understand several varieties:

ST04: *We should be able to recognize the differences because I believe that a versatile knowledge is a way of facilitating communication.*

Variables analysis

Due to the relatively small number of subjects who provided comments on this issue and the number of categories these answers were further analysed into, any examination of the answers in terms of the variables proposed will be only tentative. However, some interesting tendencies could be discerned.

In category *a* (mixing varieties is possible), there seem to be some differences according to the length of time teachers have been teaching English. Teachers with a shorter experience in teaching English were more likely to say that mixing varieties is not a problem (Appendix 5.28). In category *b* (consistency is expected), the teachers' experience in ELT could indicate some different attitudes as teacher trainers showed a higher tendency to say that consistency is important (Appendix 5.29). Finally, teachers who emphasized the need to develop receptive knowledge of different varieties were all ESP and non-native teachers.

These results might indicate some relevant tendencies in ELT. On the one hand, accepting the mixing of varieties might be more common in younger professionals, while more experienced teachers might have a more conservative view on the issue. This could be explained by the fact that younger teachers have gone through their language learning process more recently, assimilating both AmE and BrE through various sources.

Furthermore, there seems to be some kind of expectation that English language teachers should use one variety only. Apparently, there is a gap between the language expected to be used in the classroom and the language used outside the classroom. Teachers are supposed to model one type of language that students will hardly find once they use the language to communicate with a variety of native and non-native speakers.

Lastly, it might be possible that non-native and ESP teachers are more aware of the importance of developing skills in understanding different varieties due to the characteristics of their language learning process or the objectives of their language classes, which may be linked with a more multicultural context of language use.

If we analyse the comments made by students and teachers, there seems to be some agreement on their views about mixing varieties or being consistent in one of them. Students and teachers who believe consistency is preferable do so because it enhances comprehension and shows knowledge of the language. Moreover, they think that a variety should be used only with its native speakers. These subjects also relate consistency with language correctness/purity. In sum, the arguments used to support the idea that consistency should be expected rest on the belief that there is a clear distinction between varieties, which means that they can and should be learned and used without the influence of another variety.

It is also interesting to note that many subjects who think that mixing is possible have also stated that comprehension is the most important issue to be considered. However, unlike the subjects who said comprehension is better achieved through consistency, they believe that mixing varieties is acceptable when it does not affect comprehensibility. Moreover, these subjects referred to the fact that mixing varieties already happens

among non-native speakers. Interestingly, some teachers stated that it is usual among native speakers as well.

Some students and teachers seem to agree that consistency might be expected only in specific contexts of language use. They believe that teachers of English should be consistent while other users are allowed to mix varieties. Moreover, consistency should happen in written discourse while it is possible to mix varieties in spoken language.

Finally, some teachers and students agree that developing receptive knowledge of varieties is more important than producing language using features of one or more varieties.

5.6. Summary of chapter

This chapter started to answer the second set of research questions concerned with subjects' attitudes toward EIL by dealing with the discussion of the linguistic dimension of EIL in the light of data from the students' and teachers' questionnaires and interviews which treated the following aspects: subjects' familiarity with English varieties and accents, subjects' attitudes toward learning/teaching varieties, students' reaction to native and non-native accents, students' liking and desire for native and non-native accents, students' identification of native and non-native speakers' origin, and subjects' attitudes toward mixing varieties (AmE/BrE) or consistency in one.

Overall, subjects tended to display a more linguacentred attitude to learning and using English. More specifically, students stated that they like the British accent better than any other and would like to speak English with that accent. Also, the subjects who believe they should be consistent in a single variety claimed that BrE is the norm to be followed. Finally, the nationality of the British speakers was more easily identified than the origins of other native and non-native speakers.

However, many subjects pointed out the relevance and importance of the American variety of English. But when asked about the coexistence of both BrE and AmE in the international sphere or in their own experience of learning and using English, many

stressed that they consider BrE the 'correct' and target variety although many subjects think that it is important to know the differences between BrE and AmE.

But there is no doubt that subjects hold more positive attitudes toward these two standard varieties than other native or non-native varieties of English. Subjects reported being more familiar with BrE and AmE (although it is likely that students do not know how different these two varieties are) and reacted more positively to these varieties in terms of four characteristics (friendly accent, clear accent, polished accent, and not funny accent).

Moreover, not many students or teachers believed it is important to learn about non-native varieties of English and few subjects reported being familiar with non-native English. Also, students were not able to identify the origins of most non-native speakers on tape and on video. The subjects' lack of interest in non-native varieties might be related with the little or no contact they had with them in their past English language education.

At times subjects displayed a more internationally oriented perception of the English language. The vast majority of subjects believed it is very important to learn about international features of English. Furthermore, many students and teachers accept mixing the American and British varieties when using English.

All in all, students and teachers seem to have very similar attitudes toward the English language. Sometimes, though, teachers were closer to a more international approach to English as when a higher percentage of teachers reacted positively to learning international features of English and incorporating non-native varieties (ESL and EFL) in class and when more teachers than students reported being familiar with native and non-native varieties of English.

In order to arrive at an accurate, unbiased and reliable picture of the use of English as an international language in Portugal today, identifying students' and teachers' attitudes toward the linguistic dimension of EIL is pivotal but not sufficient. Other central dimensions of EIL have to do with the cultural aspects associated with learning and

teaching the language. In view of this, the next chapter attempts to discuss the subjects' attitudes toward the cultural dimensions of EIL.

Chapter 6: The practice of EIL in Portugal II – attitudes toward the cultural dimensions of EIL

6.1. Introduction

The following chapter deals with the subjects' attitudes toward the cultural dimensions of EIL, discussing data collected from the students' and teachers' questionnaires and interviews which help answer the three subtopics of research question 2 concerned with the current representation of EIL in Portugal (see section 3.3)³⁵.

The cultural dimensions of EIL are analysed based on the following domains: (a) subjects' attitudes toward learning/teaching about specific cultures (native and non-native); and (b) subjects' attitudes towards learning/teaching about culture in general.

Similar to the approach used to interpret data in Chapter 5 (The practice of EIL in Portugal I – attitudes toward the linguistic dimensions of EIL), the subjects' answers were explained depending on how close they were to viewing the cultural aspects of learning English as either intrinsically oriented toward native communities – particularly the UK – or incorporating a more international perspective which takes into account native as well as non-native societies (see sections 2.3 and 2.7). Fundamentally, a view of culture based on native cultures can emerge from three different approaches: it may promote British culture only, it may focus on both the UK and the US, or it may incorporate other English native cultures. Likewise, a more international viewpoint can also be offered in three perspectives: it may refer to ESL contexts only, it may present both ESL and EFL communities – including the local culture – or it may introduce international aspects not specific to any culture.

However, the analysis of data in this study indicates that the subjects' attitudes toward learning/teaching culture do not usually correspond to just one of these perspectives but rather, students and teachers display a manifold set of beliefs which may at times be closer or more distant to an international approach to learning/teaching culture in ELT.

³⁵ Research question 2 (2a, 2b and 2c) started to be answered in Chapter 5 (The practice of EIL in Portugal I – attitudes toward the linguistic dimensions of EIL) and will be further developed in Chapter 7 (The practice of EIL in Portugal III – attitudes toward issues of language affiliation).

On reflection, although teachers reacted more positively to learning/teaching culture, students and teachers clearly identified British and American cultures as the most important cultures to be incorporated in English language classes. Moreover, most subjects regarded other native cultures as essential aspects to be considered. However, what might be seen as an approach to culture which emphasizes native countries should be re-examined due to the importance subjects gave to learning about international cultural aspects not specific to any country. Nonetheless, students and teachers placed very little importance to learning/teaching about ESL and EFL cultures.

To sum up, at the same time subjects favoured British and American cultures as the most important in ELT, they also acknowledged the importance of referring to international cultural aspects not specific to any country and, as pointed out by the teachers, Portuguese culture as well. The subjects' attitude toward the cultural dimensions of EIL seems to combine a native culture centred angle with one that highlights a global attitude to culture.

6.2. Learning and teaching about specific cultures

This section examines qualitative and quantitative data concerning subjects' attitudes toward learning and teaching culture, especially native and non-native. Students and teachers were asked in the questionnaires and interviews how important they viewed learning about different cultures (British, American, other native cultures, ESL cultures, EFL cultures, Portuguese culture) and international aspects not specific to any country (see section 2.7). In the questionnaires (students' questionnaire Section III, question 6; teachers' questionnaire Section II, question 8), students and teachers reacted to seven statements in a Likert-scale. Moreover, teachers were also asked if they would have different approaches to teaching culture depending on the type of students they taught (teacher trainees or ESP students).

6.2.1. Students' attitude toward learning about specific cultures

Results reveal that most students expect to learn about British culture as 86.2% said that it is *very important/important*. Next, 74.4% of the students said that it is *very important/important* to learn about American culture. These numbers seem to indicate

clearly that students are inclined to prefer to study the two most influential native cultures in ELT. However, it is interesting to note that more students believe it is *very important/important* to study international cultural aspects not specific to any country (65.3%) than to study native cultures other than British and American (54.5%). Undoubtedly, students distinguish British and American cultures from other native cultures. Finally, it is interesting that 35%, 37.1% and 55.5% of the students said it is *unimportant/very unimportant* to learn about ESL cultures, Portuguese culture and EFL cultures, respectively (see Table 6.1 for the overall percentages for each statement and response).

	British culture	American culture	Other ENL cultures (Canada, South Africa, Australia,...)	ESL cultures (Nigeria, India, Hong Kong,...)	EFL cultures (France, Japan, Russia,...)	International cultural aspects not specific to any country	Portuguese culture
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Very important	43.1%	23.2%	11.5%	2.9%	.8%	24.1%	9.0%
Important	43.1%	51.2%	43.0%	23.5%	10.0%	41.2%	24.9%
Neither important nor unimportant	9.8%	17.5%	30.7%	38.7%	33.8%	20.8%	29.0%
Unimportant	3.3%	5.7%	11.1%	23.5%	31.3%	10.6%	22.4%
Very unimportant	.8%	2.4%	3.7%	11.5%	24.2%	3.3%	14.7%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table 6.1: Overall percentages for each statement and response (students)

Based on the median calculated for each item (Appendix 6.1), the seven statements were divided into three groups according to the importance students gave to them. First, ‘British culture’, ‘American culture’, ‘international cultural aspects’ and ‘other ENL cultures’ are the items that students give more importance to. In the second place come ‘ESL cultures’ and ‘Portuguese culture’. Finally, students see EFL cultures as the least important item. Except for the students’ attitude toward learning about international cultural aspects not specific to any country, it can be said that they are inclined to favour native cultures, particularly British and American cultures.

In the interview, one subject pointed out linguistic reasons for his lack of interest in learning about ESL cultures by emphasizing BrE, and consequently, British culture, as the target:

SE008: *I don't think [ESL cultures are] so important. I believe we need to keep the main standard (...). We'd better keep the British standard.*

In this student's opinion, the role of BrE as the main variety of the language means that it is not relevant to learn about other cultures. Nonetheless, some subjects called attention to the possible relevance of learning about ESL cultures:

UL003: *Nowadays there are so many countries which use English and there are many countries which have English as their official language that I think it's very important to include their cultures in the language classes.*

UL033: *Perhaps I wouldn't give that much importance, but it's also relevant. (...) They speak English as a second language and it has certain characteristics, they were influenced by a native country so I think it's also interesting and important to see these characteristics and the presence of English.*

In the same way, two subjects pointed out that Portuguese culture can also be pertinent in the English class:

ST061: *First, I think it should be the native cultures once we're speaking of the native language. Then, I think it should be the Portuguese culture because it's something from the place we're in and finally the other two [ESL and EFL cultures].*

ST032: *I think when we learn another language we should not put our language and our culture aside. I believe that when communicating with other people, it's also important (...) to let our culture out just a little bit.*

Other subjects commented on the inclusion of EFL cultures in language classes. Generally speaking, these students tended to see EFL cultures as relevant but they put some limitations to dealing with these cultures in the language classes:

UL033: *The ideal would be that we all knew a lot about all cultures. But then, it's not the responsibility of the English teacher. He/she can call attention to*

some things that in that country students perhaps may have difficulty in understanding because in that culture it's like that.

However, one student pointed out that studying about EFL cultures and the features of the English of EFL speakers may develop the students' linguistic and cultural tolerance:

UL001: *I think it's also important though I myself as a teacher of English think that we should focus mainly on native countries and ESL countries but I believe it'd also be interesting to broaden it up so that students could know that they speak English in a different way from, for example, the Japanese or the Turkish and also know that when they come across these people here in Portugal, they should try and understand why they speak like that so differently and maybe not be so mean and say 'This person doesn't speak English like me so he doesn't know how to speak English'... so, in the sense of opening up the level of linguistic tolerance as well as cultural tolerance.*

Other subjects also referred to knowledge of cultural aspects of native and non-native countries as an essential part of learning English today:

ST032: *I think it's important to have some knowledge of the British culture and the American way of life and other countries where English is the native language but I believe that now it's become important to know, or at least to be open to, all other cultures, of all countries, whether English is their native language or not because as English is used in every country, it's spoken everywhere, it's important to know the language but perhaps the culture of the people is also important.*

It might be worthwhile to note that although data from the questionnaire showed that students attached little importance to Portuguese, ESL and EFL cultures, in the interviews a number of students brought up some favourable aspects for dealing with those cultures in language classes.

Variables analysis

Statistically significant differences in the subjects' answers in the questionnaire were found in the following variables: course, length of time studying English, and spending time outside Portugal.

A. Course

After the Mann-Whitney test was carried out, significant differences between the two groups of students were found in the following items: British culture, American culture, other ENL cultures, and international cultural aspects (Asymp. Sigs. 2-tailed .000; $p < .05$). Teacher trainees displayed a more positive attitude toward learning about British culture, American culture and other ENL cultures than ESP students. Conversely, ESP students placed more importance to learning about international cultural aspects not specific to any country than teacher trainees (see Appendix 6.2 for the mean ranks for teacher trainees and ESP students where there were statistically significant differences). It is quite noticeable that ESP students seem to be closer to a more international approach to learning about culture than teacher trainees, who seem to emphasize English native cultures.

B. Length of time studying English

The Kruskal Wallis test was carried out and differences were found for British culture, American culture, other ENL cultures (Asymp. Sigs. .000; $p < .05$) and international cultural aspects (Asymp. Sig. .006; $p < .05$) as far as the different lengths of time students have been studying English are concerned. As students spend more time studying English, more importance is given to studying British culture, American culture and other ENL cultures. In contrast, they seem to give less importance to studying international cultural aspects not specific to any country (see Appendix 6.3 for the mean ranks of the four lengths of time where there were statistically significant differences). It can be concluded that the longer the students study English, the more likely it is that they will attach more importance to learning about English native culture in general and less importance to dealing with international cultural aspects.

C. Spending time outside Portugal

The Mann-Whitney test found differences between students who spent some time outside Portugal and those who did not and their attitude toward learning American culture (Asymp. Sig. 2-tailed .035; $p < .05$) and ESL cultures (Asymp. Sig. 2-tailed .013; $p < .05$). These two items are more important for the students who spent some time outside Portugal than for those who did not (see Appendix 6.4 for the mean ranks for the two groups of students where there were statistically significant differences).

6.2.2. Teachers' attitude toward learning/teaching about specific cultures

Some teachers characterized the teaching of culture as “*important*”, “*fundamental*” and “*absolutely essential*”. In one teacher's opinion (SE03) “*teaching a language is transmitting cultural aspects*”.

While some teachers shared the opinion that culture should be a means and not an end and that cultural aspects should be chosen according to their influence on language, one teacher had a different opinion:

UL04: *The teaching of English should touch on other cultural aspects whatever they might be even when not related to the language.*

However, two teachers believed that teaching culture is not a relevant issue in their classes:

UE04: *There's some room for that but not much (...) there's not enough time. At the end of the day, ESP classes focus mostly on grammar.*

UE02: *I don't think it's that relevant. If our aim is the international use of the language, then it's not so important to study individual cultures of every English speaking country.*

The analysis of quantitative data shows that teachers hold an overall positive attitude towards learning/teaching about some specific cultures. First of all, the vast majority of teachers (96.1%) believe that it is *very important/important* to study British culture. In addition, studying about American culture is seen by 92.3% of the teachers as *very*

important/important. Next, 76.0% said that it is *very important/important* to learn about Portuguese culture. Learning/teaching about international cultural aspects not specific to any country is *very important/important* for 73.1% of the teachers. Most teachers (72%) also hold the view that it is *very important/important* to learn/teach about ENL countries. Remarkably, most teachers do not attach much importance to studying about ESL and EFL cultures as just 40% stated that it is *very important/important* to study ESL countries and even fewer teachers (only 16.7%) said it is *very important/important* to learn/teach about EFL countries (see Table 6.2 for the overall percentages for each statement and response).

	British culture	American culture	Other ENL cultures (Canada, South Africa, Australia,...)	ESL cultures (Nigeria, India, Hong Kong,...)	EFL cultures (France, Japan, Russia,...)	International cultural aspects not specific to any country	Portuguese culture
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Very important	69.2%	65.4%	28.0%	12.0%	4.2%	42.3%	32.0%
Important	26.9%	26.9%	44.0%	28.0%	12.5%	30.8%	44.0%
Neither important nor unimportant	3.8%	3.8%	24.0%	36.0%	29.2%	23.1%	20.0%
Unimportant		3.8%	4.0%	20.0%	12.5%	3.8%	
Very unimportant				4.0%	41.7%		4.0%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table 6.2: Overall percentages for each statement and response (teachers)

These results make it clear that in the teachers’ opinion British and American cultures play a very important role in the language class:

ST02: *As we’re teaching English, our references will always be the US and England.*

One teacher explained his choice for presenting British and American cultures in his teacher training classes:

UE01: *I do it with these students because I think that a lot of textbooks that they’ll be using with their future students also rely a lot on information about Britain and America.*

In addition, two ESP teachers displayed a culturally centred viewpoint which emphasizes British culture only:

ST01: *It's important that we say something about British culture because if the language is seen as a bridge then there are some cultural aspects that can also be seen as a bridge so it's important that we know something about the British.*

ST03: *What I did was to make them more sensible to British history. (...) I believe it's important that we know about the origin.*

One subject, however, believed that stereotypical facts should be avoided and general cultural aspects emphasized:

UL02: *What you find in materials, like the British like tea, they eat this, that, well, that kind of thing seems to be to me stereotypical and really untrue for the most part. (...) Getting into what's happening where, when, how, why would be more relevant than having fragmented stale presentations of facts.*

Surprisingly, other subjects explained why they do not incorporate British or American culture in their classes, either emphasizing the international scope of English or denying a view of culture based on nationalities:

UE02: *If the aim is to learn an international language then we cannot be limited to one or two or three cultures, we'd have to study them all.*

UE03: *This doesn't exist! This is a myth! What is American culture? What state are we talking about? Are we talking about an underground New York culture or are we talking about Florida? (...) We understand people by their lifestyle not their citizenship. (...) I don't believe there's a native British culture either.*

The subject quoted above seems to critique the premise that culture should be approached according to the language users' nationalities. Such a standpoint may not be common among ELT practitioners but these thought-provoking remarks may be the result of the subject's academic background of literature and culture studies.

Another subject valued international cultural aspects in her approach to teaching culture in ESP classes:

UE03: *Sometimes I use materials from international meetings and conferences, how the Greek, the Turkish, the Indians react when they face the same situation, their cultural behaviour.*

Some teachers stated that as English is not tied to any one culture, the major aspect in language learning should be cross-cultural awareness:

SE02: *I'm not really worried about issues relating to one culture in particular, native or non-native, I'm interested in issues concerning the contemporary world.*

Other teachers emphasized Portuguese culture, international cultural aspects and other native cultures. Including Portuguese culture in the English language class was viewed as an effective means for comparing and contrasting the different cultures:

SE02: *Many times it comes as a contrast. We usually depart from a foreign context, English speaking or non-English speaking, and then later on we compare and contrast it with the students' own experience in terms of Portuguese culture.*

Although some teachers stressed the need to establish links between the natives and Portuguese cultures, one native English teacher believed he would not be the right person to do so:

UE01: *Not being Portuguese, I wouldn't try to teach them their own culture.*

Moreover, in his opinion, the culture to be studied should be related to the language used in class:

UE01: *It would sound a little artificial to learn about Portuguese culture through the medium of English.*

As far as teaching native cultures other than British and American is concerned, one subject expressed his concern to relate culture and language teaching:

UE01: *From a general education perspective (...) it's good to learn about other cultures whether it be English speaking cultures or not. Obviously, if it's an English speaking culture then it's already an input into the language straight away, it's an obvious thing to use as a vehicle for language teaching.*

On the other hand, some teachers observed that they would not prepare classes specifically on native cultures:

UE02: *I don't actually value the teaching of culture as culture per se. But I'm aware that through certain materials I end up transmitting some cultural aspects from several English speaking countries. (...) But I never choose materials with that in mind.*

However, results showed that teachers do not see much relevance in presenting ESL or EFL cultures. In spite of that, one of the subjects mentioned her work in an African Studies course and the relevance of presenting ESL varieties in these classes in particular and in EFL classes in general:

UL02: *One of my courses is English for African Studies and so I'm concentrating on African types of English and the students have to understand the sociocultural reality of different African countries. (...) It's good for [EFL students] to look at Bollywood films and see how other people speak the language.*

Nevertheless, other subjects did not consider the inclusion of ESL or EFL cultures in their English classes for a number of reasons. One subject wondered if the English class should be the right one to expose students to other cultures:

SE03: *Would the English class be the most adequate for that? Perhaps all classes are responsible for it, perhaps the Portuguese language class could also include global culture. I don't see why it should be in the English class.*

Another teacher referred to limitations of time and relevance:

UL08: *We can't attempt to teach too much, [we should] concentrate on the main thing (...) I do question their importance in the Portuguese context.*

Finally, a subject believed that contacting ESL and EFL cultures is likely to happen outside school:

ST02: *If I'm told that I have to include cultural aspects from every country that uses English as a language of communication, this is a never-ending task, it's impossible! (...) I think it has to do with the student's own discovery. (...) What I might do is to say 'Listen, we're talking about these cases but don't forget that you'll be working with people from different cultures so you've got to have open minds to that. And all the rest you'll learn through hands-on experience'.*

Variables analysis

Statistically significant differences in the questionnaire results were found in the length of time teachers have been teaching English, the teachers' language affiliation (native teachers vs. non-native teachers) and their experience in teaching English.

A. Length of time teaching English

The Kruskal Wallis test showed differences in the way teachers viewed learning about international cultural aspects not related to a specific country based on the length of time they have been teaching English (Asymp. Sig. .042; $p < .05$). Those who have been teaching for more than 20 years showed a more positive attitude toward teaching about international cultural aspects while teachers who have been teaching for 11 to 20 years were the least positive of them all (see Appendix 6.5 for the frequency and mean ranks for the three groups of teachers).

B. Language affiliation

Differences were found in the way teachers viewed learning about ESL cultures based on their language affiliation (natives vs. non-natives) (Asymp Sig. 2-tailed .022; $p < .05$) after the Mann-Whitney test was carried out. Native teachers were slightly more positive toward learning about ESL cultures than non-native teachers (see Appendix 6.6 for the frequency and mean ranks for the two groups of teachers).

C. Experience in teaching English

The Mann-Whitney test also showed differences in the teachers' views on learning about international cultural aspects based on their experience in teaching English (teacher trainers vs. ESP teachers) (Asymp Sig. 2-tailed .041; $p < .05$). Teachers who have taught both teacher trainees and ESP students were more positive toward learning about international cultural aspects not specific to any country than ESP teachers (see Appendix 6.7 shows the frequency and mean ranks for the two groups of teachers).

These results might indicate some tendencies among English language teachers. Teachers who have been teaching English for a longer time and teachers who teach both ESP students and English teacher trainees seem to have adopted a more internationally oriented approach to teaching culture. However, it is necessary to carry out a more comprehensive study with a larger number of subjects in order to obtain more reliable results.

Comparing students' and teachers' data, it can be said that both groups of subjects referred to British culture as the most important in ELT, followed by American culture. It is worth mentioning that teachers had a more positive attitude toward both cultures than students. Similarly, students and teachers did not agree on the importance of studying about Portuguese culture. While teachers perceived it to be quite important, not many students shared this opinion. Moreover, teachers reacted more positively toward native cultures other than British and American than students did. However,

students and teachers agreed when they attached little importance to learning/teaching cultural aspects of EFL countries.

All in all, teachers reacted more positively toward all items than students. This might indicate that teachers are more inclined to see the value of including cultural aspects in English classes.

6.2.3. Teaching culture in ESP or Teacher Training classes

Teachers were also asked (interview and questionnaire section II, question 9) if they thought studying cultural aspects depended on the students and aims of the course (ESP students or teacher trainees). Data analysis showed that nine teachers said there were no differences when teaching cultural aspects to ESP students or teacher trainees while seventeen teachers said there were some differences depending on the group of students they had.

A. There are no differences in the two groups of students

Some teachers emphasized the idea that learning cultural aspects does not depend on the kind of students:

UL09: *You can't be competent in a language without knowing the culture in depth.*

UL03: *Any EFL student should develop cross-cultural communication or awareness.*

UL08: *Cultural aspects are always important as they help to understand more about the language.*

B. Learning culture depends on the students

Some teachers identified two major reasons for distinguishing cultural aspects depending on the students. First, different learning goals mean different content as far as culture is concerned:

UE05: Cultural aspects should always be present though the kind of student will define the scope of their studies.

UE06: We should distinguish general cultural aspects which could be shared by both kinds of students and other specific means which are related to certain topic areas in different professional activities.

Second, due to the relevance of cultural aspects to certain professions, it may be possible that teacher trainees might need greater exposure to culture:

SE01: In some specific and technical courses these cultural aspects might be secondary.

SE03: Cultural aspects should be dealt with in more depth if we're talking about future teachers of English.

UL05: Future teachers of English should have a greater knowledge [of cultural aspects].

Variables analysis

Even though the number of subjects is not statistically significant, when analysing the answers to this question as far as the variables are concerned, some interesting observations can be made.

The first noticeable difference appeared in the teachers' experience in ELT. All teacher trainers agreed that there were no differences in the teaching of cultural aspects regardless of the kind of students they might have. However, almost every ESP teacher (91.67%) said that there are differences depending on the kind of students. Finally, teachers with both teacher training and teaching ESP experience showed a more

balanced response: 54.55% said there were no differences as opposed to 45.45% who said there were differences when regarding the two groups of students.

Another variable which showed some differences in the content of the answers was the teacher's language affiliation. While 77.78% of the non-native teachers said there were differences, only 37.5% of the native teachers shared the same opinion.

Finally, the teachers' institutional affiliation seemed to lead to slight different attitudes. The majority of the polytechnic teachers (77.78%) replied that there are differences between the two groups of students as far as learning culture is concerned. Nevertheless, 58.82% of the university teachers had the same opinion.

However, rather than showing statistically significant data, these remarks provide some thought-provoking tendencies which require further analysis to be fully explained.

6.3. Importance of learning about cultures in general

The following section analyses quantitative data regarding students' and teachers' attitudes toward learning and teaching culture in general (students' questionnaire Section III, question 10; teachers' questionnaire Section II, question 11). Subjects showed their attitude toward learning about cultures in general by reacting to two statements in a Likert-scale: (a) it is important to know that different cultures use English differently; and (b) it is important to learn about the cultural patterns of English speaking as well as non-English speaking peoples.

In the students' case, if we add the percentages of "strongly agree" and "agree" responses to each item, we see that while 73.9% *strongly agree/agree* that it is important to know that different cultures use English differently, 54.1% *strongly agree/agree* that it is important to learn about the cultural patterns of English speaking as well as non-English speaking peoples (see Table 6.3 for the overall percentages for each statement and response).

	(a) It is important to know that different cultures use English differently		(b) It is important to learn about the cultural patterns of English speaking as well as non-English speaking peoples	
	Count	%	Count	%
Strongly agree	49	20.0	21	8.6
Agree	132	53.9	111	45.5
Neither agree nor disagree	56	22.9	78	32.0
Disagree	7	2.9	28	11.5
Strongly disagree	1	.4	6	2.5
Total	245	100.0	244	100.0

Table 6.3: Overall percentages for each statement and response (students)

The percentages given to statement “b” are somehow similar to the students’ negative reaction to learning about ESL and EFL cultures in question 6, Section III, of the questionnaire (see section 6.2.1) when compared to the importance they attached to learning about native-speaking cultures.

Variables analysis

Statistically significant differences in the students’ answers were found in the following variables: course, and length of time studying English.

A. Course

The Mann-Whitney test was conducted and significant differences were found between teacher trainees and ESP students in the importance they attached to learning about the cultural patterns of English speaking as well as non-English speaking peoples (Asymp. Sig. 2-tailed .028; $p<.05$). Teacher trainees attached more importance to learning about the cultures of native and non-native countries than ESP students did (see Appendix 6.8 for the mean ranks of teacher trainees and ESP students where there were statistically significant differences).

B. Length of time studying English

After the Kruskal Wallis test was carried out, differences emerged based on the length of time students have been learning English and the way their attitude toward knowing that different cultures use English differently (Asymp. Sig. .027; $p<.05$). The longer the students study English, the more important they see studying about how cultures use

English (see Appendix 6.9 for the mean ranks of the four lengths of time where there were statistically significant differences).

ESP students again reacted more positively to a statement which did not treat culture as belonging to a specific group of people – native or non-native (statement “a”) (see also the results in the variables analysis in section 6.2.1). Moreover, it is quite interesting to see that students seem to acquire a more open attitude toward learning about how cultures use English in different ways. This might indicate a tendency towards a more international approach to the English language as students spend more time learning the language (see also the results in the variables analysis in section 6.2.1).

As for teachers’ data, it can be seen that 96% *strongly agree/agree* that it is important to know that different cultures use English differently and 76.9% *strongly agree/agree* that it is important to learn about the cultural patterns of English speaking as well as non-English speaking peoples (see Table 6.4 for the overall percentages for each statement and response).

	(a) It is important to know that different cultures use English differently		(b) It is important to learn about the cultural patterns of English speaking as well as non-English speaking peoples	
	Count	%	Count	%
Strongly agree	12	48.0	9	34.6
Agree	12	48.0	11	42.3
Neither agree nor disagree	1	4.0	6	23.1
Missing system	1	3.8		
Total	26	100.0	26	100.0

Table 6.4: Overall percentages for each statement and response (teachers)

Although teachers displayed a more positive attitude to both statements than students did (similar to what happened in section 6.2), both types of subjects distinguish differences in the two statements. Perhaps the difference between students’ and teachers’ reactions to statements (a) and (b) can be explained by the fact that while statement (a) does not mention any specific type of culture, statement (b) clearly points out to both native and non-native cultures as being equally important.

All in all, subjects reacted more positively to the statement which does not mention non-native cultures. However, students and teachers attached more importance to the statement which refers to non-native cultures in general (b) than they did to the specific cultures (ESL and EFL) in sections 6.2.1 and 6.2.2. In other words, subjects distinguish an approach to dealing with non-native cultures on the whole from one which relates to particular cultures.

6.4. Summary of chapter

This chapter attempted to answer the second set of research questions aimed at identifying students' and teachers' attitudes toward EIL, this time referring to the cultural dimensions of EIL, and based on data analysed from questionnaires and interviews which considered the following features: subjects' attitudes toward learning/teaching about specific cultures (native and non-native); and subjects' attitudes towards learning/teaching about culture in general.

All in all, students and teachers viewed learning culture in ELT quite positively. However, if, on the one hand, they regarded British culture, American culture, international cultural aspects not specific to any country, and other English native cultures as important, they did not have the same opinion about ESL and EFL cultures. Furthermore, when asked about learning/teaching culture in general, that is, without naming specific cultures such as British, American, ESL or EFL, they reacted more positively toward the statement which did not refer to non-native cultures.

In addition, subjects clearly pointed out British culture as the most important culture in ELT, followed by American culture. These choices seem to be linked with many findings in Chapter 5, where subjects displayed a more positive attitude toward BrE and AmE than toward other native and non-native varieties. However, students and teachers also referred to the importance of international cultural aspects in language classes. These results may indicate that at the same time subjects appreciate British and American culture, they are also interested in approaching English as an international language. Findings in section 5.3 also refer to most subjects' favourable attitude toward learning about international features of English.

When comparing students' and teachers' attitudes to the cultural dimensions of EIL, it can be said that teachers reacted more positively to learning/teaching culture in language classes than students did. This can be tentatively explained by the fact that some of the teachers in this study have an academic background of literature and cultural studies. One striking difference between the two groups of subjects is that teachers viewed Portuguese culture as much more important in English classes compared to the students' opinion about it.

Among teachers, there seems to be no consensus on how to approach culture in ELT. Most of them believed that the choice of cultural materials in language classes depend on the kind of students they teach (e.g. teacher trainees or ESP students). However, about one third of the teachers affirmed that there would be no differences between their students and their approach to dealing with culture would be the same.

Together with the subjects' view of the linguistic dimensions of EIL, the identification of students' and teachers' attitudes toward the cultural dimensions of EIL helps us build a more thorough picture of how English as an international language is perceived. However, there are other essential aspects which due to their specific nature could not be included in the data analysed in Chapters 5 and 6. Consequently, Chapter 7 will attempt to complete the framework of the subjects' attitude toward EIL in Portugal by examining some issues related to the English user's language affiliation.

Chapter 7: The practice of EIL in Portugal III – attitudes toward issues of language affiliation

7.1. Introduction

Chapter 7 refers to the discussion of students' and teachers' attitudes toward issues of language affiliation (see section 2.5) relevant to the concept of EIL. Based on data gathered from questionnaires and interviews, this chapter attempts to conclude the answer to research question 2 and its three lines of inquiry (questions 2.a, 2.b and 2.c)³⁶ (see section 3.3).

Issues of language affiliation pertinent to EIL are demonstrated through the following areas: (a) subjects' attitudes toward native speakers' and non-native speakers' use of English; (b) subjects' belief of learners' goal in speaking English; (c) subjects' belief of learners' goal in writing in English; (d) students' perception of own English; (e) subjects' view on ownership of English; (f) subjects' view on English language intelligibility; (g) subjects' attitudes toward native and non-native teachers; and (h) students' motivation to learn English.

The subjects' comments on each of these areas could be understood as some kind of influence on their attitudes to learning and using English. If on the one hand, students and teachers strengthen the role of native speakers in the identified areas of language affiliation, this might reflect a more linguistically and culturally centred view of English. On the other hand, if subjects perceive the relevance of non-native speakers, their view of English may stress the international scope of the language.

Essentially, students and teachers showed a flexible approach to the issues of language affiliation proposed. Subjects seemed to subscribe to the notion of English as an international language as far as learners' goal in speaking English, ownership of English and the roles of native and non-native teachers in ELT are concerned. Moreover, students also came close to an international approach to English in their attitudes toward

³⁶ These research questions were partially answered in Chapter 5 (The practice of EIL in Portugal I – attitudes toward the linguistic dimensions of EIL) and Chapter 6 (The practice of EIL in Portugal II – attitudes toward the cultural dimensions of EIL).

native speakers' and non-native speakers' use of English, their perception of the English they use and their motivation for learning the language.

7.2. Native speakers' (NSs) and non-native speakers' (NNSs) use of English

The following section reports the findings from questionnaires and interviews about subjects' attitudes toward the use of English of NSs and NNSs (see sections 2.3 and 2.5). Students and teachers were given two pairs of statements related to (a) NSs' use of English when interacting with NNSs (a.1: "NSs should use English with non-natives as if they were communicating with other NSs"; a.2: "NSs should use English with non-natives in a way to make it easy for NNSs to understand them, that is, without a heavy accent or using slang") and (b) NSs' expectations of non-natives' use of English (b.1: "NSs should expect NNSs to sound or act like NSs to be effective English users"; b.2: "NSs should be more tolerant towards NNSs' English"). Subjects were asked to choose the statement in each pair which came closest to their view.

The four statements can be associated with two different approaches to the use of English of native and non-native speakers. On the one hand, statements a.1 and b.1 emphasize that NNSs should aim to acquire NS competence while statements a.2 and b.2 point out that the English of NSs and NNSs are inevitably different. In other words, subjects may be close to a view that regards the NS as a model to be followed or they may see NSs and NNSs as distinct users of English, whose language will, therefore, be different.

7.2.1. Students' attitudes toward NSs' and NNSs' use of English

Students were asked in the questionnaire (Section III, question 11) to choose the statement which characterized their opinion about NSs and NNSs using English and 58.9% said that NSs "should use English with non-natives in a way to make it easy for NNSs to understand them, that is, without a heavy accent or using slang" (pair *a*). Moreover, the vast majority of the subjects (87.8%) said that "NSs should be more tolerant towards NNSs' English" (pair *b*).

In the interview, several subjects agreed that NSs should try to facilitate communication when talking to NNSs by speaking slower or somehow adapting the language to the language competence of the non-native:

UL003: *If native speakers speak as if they were talking to anyone, there might be problems in communication (...) If they're talking to non-native speakers, they should calm down and perhaps not use so many idiomatic expressions so the non-native can understand better.*

Other subjects remarked that natives are supposed to accommodate their language only when they are abroad:

UE006: *If native speakers are outside their countries, they should accommodate the language but if they're in their own countries, I don't think it's important. Also, because if we don't understand, we can say 'Can you repeat?' and they'll certainly repeat more slowly.*

Lastly, a subject noted that language accommodation should depend on the competence of the non-native speaker:

UL001: *If the native realizes that the non-native has a very low competence in English, if he speaks the way he does when talking to other natives, of course there'll be problems in communication.*

Cross tabulation of the two pairs

In order to see if the two pairs of statements were dependent, cross tabulation and chi square tests were conducted. On the one hand, it was expected that students who chose statement a.2 ("NSs should use English with non-natives in a way to make it easy for NNSs to understand them, that is, without a heavy accent or using slang"), would also choose b.2 ("NSs should be more tolerant towards NNSs' English"). On the other hand, students who chose a.1 ("NSs should use English with non-natives as if they were communicating with other NSs") would pick b.1 ("NSs should expect NNSs to sound or act like NSs to be effective English users"). However, the Fisher's exact test showed

that the two variables are independent (Sig. .166; $p>.05$). In other words, these subjects made a clear distinction between NSs' and NNSs' use of English as there was no tendency for students who chose statement a.1 to choose b.1 and those who chose a.2 to choose b.2.

Variables analysis

Statistically significant differences were found in two categories of variables: course and spending time outside Portugal.

A. Course

Differences between teacher trainees and ESP students were found in their opinion about NSs' use of English (Sig. .042; $p<.05$). ESP students were more enthusiastic about the idea that NSs should use English in a way to make it easy for NNSs to understand them (see Appendix 7.1 for the frequency and percentage of teacher trainees and ESP students who chose each statement in the pair and the cross tabulation of the variables).

B. Spending time outside Portugal: spending time in an ESC vs. spending time in a NESC

Significant differences were also found in the students' attitude toward NSs' interaction with NNSs (Sig. .002; $p<.05$). Students who have been to a NESC are more inclined to say that NSs should be more tolerant towards NNSs' English than students who have been to an ESC (see Appendix 7.2 for the number of students who chose each statement in the pair and the cross tabulation of the variables).

Basically, ESP students and students who have spent some time in a NESC country tend to acknowledge differences in the way NSs and NNSs use English. Learning English for specific purposes and contacting other NNSs of English seem to help students welcome a more international approach to the language.

7.2.2. Teachers' attitude toward NSs' and NNSs' use of English

Teachers were also asked in the questionnaire (Section II, question 12) to choose the statement which described their opinion about NSs' and NNSs' use of English. While 58.3% said that "NSs should use English with non-natives as if they were communicating with other NSs", most teachers (95.7%) said that "NSs should be more tolerant towards NNSs' English".

It is important to note that if, on the one hand, most teachers do not expect NSs to modify their English to make it easier for NNSs to understand them, on the other hand, the vast majority of teachers believe that the English used by NNSs should be accepted by NSs. Teachers seem to be drawing a clear distinction between the English used by NSs and the English used by NNSs. These results can have two different interpretations. Either teachers consider that NNSs' use of English should be regarded as legitimate features of the language and by doing so, they are stressing the concept of EIL or they expect NSs not to change their language so that NNSs can get used to native English and ultimately, learn the features of Standard English.

Although the variables analysis did not show statistically significant differences in the teachers' answers, it would be important to further analyse the attitudes of native and non-native speakers toward the statements in pair *a*. Even though the chi-square tests results (Sig. .002; $p < .05$) were invalidated by the number of cells with expected count less than 5 (50%), data showed that the majority of teachers (92.9%) who said that "NSs should use English with non-natives as if they were communicating with other NSs" were NNSs while 70% of those teachers who said that "NSs should be more tolerant towards NNSs' English" were NSs. More data would be necessary to confirm that native and non-native teachers have different views on the role of NSs when communicating with NNSs.

Although most teachers seem to expect NSs not to change their English when interacting with NNSs, in the interview, several subjects noted that NSs could simplify their language when NNSs seemed not to understand them:

UL01: *I think this is an interactive thing. You're obviously also being polite, you're being considerate of the other. (...) If you're assessing your interlocutor*

as a person who's having difficulty in keeping up with you, of course you gotta change. It's only polite.

Some native speaker teachers remarked that this is a common procedure for them:

UE01: *I think talking to foreigners in your own language is a skill which you develop. If you're used to speaking to people who don't speak very good English, very quickly you learn, particularly if you're a teacher and you're used to language, (...) how to simplify your speech in a way that non-native speakers can understand you.*

Other subjects pointed out that native teachers could simplify their language by avoiding certain expressions and grammatical structures, slowing down their speech, and not using regional language characteristics. One subject suggested that adjustments and simplifications are supposed to occur in international contexts of language use:

UE02: *I believe there should be some kind of distinction between a national English and an international English used with speakers of other languages. (...) I think native speakers should try to use a more neutral and less natively marked language.*

For some teachers, however, language accommodation should occur “*depending on the situation, the context and the people involved*” (SE01). Some subjects stated that in a language learning environment, natives are not expected to facilitate language whereas in other contexts of language use there should be some kind of adjustment:

SE02: *As far as learning the language is concerned, I don't think they should, (...) if it's just a matter of facilitating communication then I think they should (...) adapt their language level to what they expect from the other person.*

However, some subjects suggested that such language accommodation hardly ever takes place:

SE02: *I believe the English and the Americans, I mean, the native speakers of English, have very little flexibility in adjusting their language.*

ST01: *Most native speakers don't do that.*

UL02: *I have seen people in the States dealing with non-native speakers with no adjustments and in fact getting a little angry, 'What's the matter with you?'.*

When comparing students' and teachers' attitudes toward NSs' and NNSs' use of English, both types of subjects shared their opinion about NSs' expectations of NNSs' use of English as most of them believed that NSs should be more tolerant towards NNSs' English. However, students and teachers had different opinions about NSs' use of English when interacting with NNSs. While most students said that NSs should use English with non-natives in a way to make it easy for them to understand, most teachers thought that NSs should use English with non-natives as if they were communicating with other NSs.

A possible explanation for this difference may have to do with the subjects' language competence. Although this study did not aim to identify the subjects' competence in English, it is believed that due to the students' linguistic level they might expect that NSs simplify their language when talking to them.

7.3. Language competence vs. native target in speaking/writing in English

This section reports the findings from qualitative and quantitative data concerning students' and teachers' beliefs about a Portuguese learner's goal in speaking and writing in English: to speak/write like native speakers do or to be a competent speaker/writer with no native target in mind (see sections 2.5 and 2.7).

7.3.1. Students' goal in speaking English

Students could identify their goal as, on the one hand, following a native speaker model or, on the other hand, achieving linguistic competence though having an accent

influenced by their first language and sometimes making grammar mistakes. More specifically, students could choose one of the following goals (questionnaire Section III, question 3): (a) to speak like the educated British; (b) to speak like the educated American; (c) to speak like the educated British or American; (d) to speak like other native speakers (e.g. Australians, Canadians,...); (e) to be a competent speaker, that is, it's OK to have a Portuguese accent and make some grammatical mistakes as long as I'm understood; and (f) to be a competent speaker making no grammatical mistakes although having a Portuguese accent.

Results show that 74.9% of the students answered that they want to be competent speakers of the language making no reference to any native model (the vast majority of these students accepted having a Portuguese accent though they expected not to have problems with grammar). If we consider native models for speaking English, only 18.9% said that they want to speak like a native speaker (most of these students referred to the educated British or American speakers as their models). Table 7.1 shows the percentage and frequency for each goal.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	a. To speak like the educated British	16	6.5	6.6	6.6
	b. To speak like the educated American	2	.8	.8	7.4
	c. To speak like the educated British or American	25	10.1	10.3	17.7
	d. To speak like other native speakers	3	1.2	1.2	18.9
	e. To be a competent speaker – accent and grammar mistakes fine	35	14.2	14.4	33.3
	f. To be a competent speaker – accent fine but no grammar mistakes	147	59.5	60.5	93.8
	g. Other	15	6.1	6.2	100.0
	Total	243	98.4	100.0	
Missing	System	4	1.6		
Total		247	100.0		

Table 7.1: Students’ goal in speaking English – percentage and frequency for each goal

As options *e* and *f* clearly indicated the students' acceptance of having a Portuguese accent, it was expected that some students might choose option *g* (other) if they were not satisfied with those two options. However, 15 students chose *g* but only five students said they wanted to have no Portuguese accent.

After analysing qualitative data, four major goals were identified in the subjects' comments: to communicate with other people, to have good fluency, to have an accent which can be understood, and to speak as correctly as possible. It should be pointed out that the subject who wanted to speak correct English said that it should be closer to standard English, standard meaning "*English which could be understood (...) a mixture of all Englishes*" (SE010). These goals clearly focused on effective communication and made no references to native models.

Curiously, when asked whether or not they had any native model to be pursued, most subjects replied positively. These comments show that rather than having a native standard to serve as a model to be strictly achieved, students consider it necessary to have at least one standard variety as the language source. These students' remarks seem to confirm Wells's idea of a native accent (AmE or BrE) serving as a 'reference' rather than a 'target'. Some subjects identified British English as their model though the importance given to this variety varied considerably. While one student vehemently stated that she wanted to "*speak English as British as possible*" (UE006) because she really liked the British accent, another subject said that although she thought she had an American accent, she would prefer to have a more British accent because "*it's the original language*" (ST032). However, she acknowledged later on that it was more important that the accent should be clearly understood. Finally, one subject observed that she tried to get closer to BrE just because she thought "*it's more beautiful than AmE not because it's more correct*" even though she thought "*there shouldn't even be any attempt to speak like a native speaker*" (UL003).

One subject chose Canadian English as her model because "*it's a more neutral accent*" (UL033) while others indicated AmE as their native target. However, two of these subjects pointed out that even though they do not look for a native model, the choice of AmE seemed reasonable because "*it might be easier to be understood*" (SE008) or

because it is “*the one I unconsciously manage to speak and understand better*” (UE051).

The analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data seems to indicate some discrepancies. Although most subjects showed no preference for a native target model in the questionnaire, subjects in the interviews had some sort of model in mind. This might indicate that students in fact struggle with two opposite goals. On the one hand, they believe that their English should be as close as possible to that of a native speaker. On the other hand, they are aware that this seems to be quite an impossible task to achieve and being able to communicate using English would seem a more plausible goal.

7.3.2. Teachers’ belief about students’ goal in speaking English

Teachers were also asked in the questionnaire (Section II, question 5) about their students’ goal when speaking English: (a) to speak like the educated British; (b) to speak like the educated American; (c) to speak like the educated British or American; (d) to speak like other native speakers (e.g. Australians, Canadians,...); (e) to be a competent speaker, that is, it’s OK to have a Portuguese accent and make some grammatical mistakes as long as he/she is understood; and (f) to be a competent speaker making no grammatical mistakes but with a Portuguese accent.

The vast majority of teachers (84.6%) do not expect learners to achieve native proficiency in English³⁷. It is interesting to observe the absence of responses to options *a* (to speak like the educated British) and *b* (to speak like the educated American). Instead, those teachers who expect their students to aim at a native target accept both the British and American standards. Table 7.2 shows the percentage and frequency for the chosen goals.

³⁷ Most subjects who chose option *g* (other) reinforced the idea of aiming to be a competent speaker. Some subjects, however, mentioned that students should “*continually strive to improve, i.e. to get closer to the range of abilities which native speakers inhabit*” (UE01).

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	c. To speak like the educated British or American	4	15.4	15.4	15.4
	e. To be a competent speaker – accent and grammar mistakes fine	7	26.9	26.9	42.3
	f. To be a competent speaker – accent fine but no grammar mistakes	9	34.6	34.6	76.9
	g. Other	6	23.1	23.1	100.0
	Total	26	100.0	100.0	

Table 7.2: Teachers’ belief of students’ goal in speaking English – percentage and frequency of chosen goals

Next, teachers were asked in the questionnaire (Section II, open ended question 5) if they thought teacher trainees and ESP students should have different goals in speaking English. Half of the subjects remarked that there should be some differences. For instance, these teachers referred to the fact that while teacher trainees should aim at a near native accent and make no grammar mistakes, ESP students could eventually have a Portuguese accent and make mistakes as long as there is communication. Moreover, it was referred to the fact that ESP students should have an extensive knowledge of technical vocabulary.

However, nine teachers pointed out that there should be no differences in the students’ goal in speaking English. Some of these subjects observed that they should be competent speakers regardless of the nature of their courses. It was also mentioned that they should speak an educated variety of English.

When asked the same question in the interview, some subjects expected teacher trainees “to be functionally fluent” (UE01), “to communicate with clarity” (SE02), or “to transmit something meaningful” (UL01). One subject called attention to the fact that as language models in the classroom, teachers “cannot make mistakes” (SE01). Similarly, other subjects observed that teacher trainees should use English as correctly as possible as long as they are understood. Others admitted having a native English target as they expect students “to communicate at the same level that a native speaker of English would be able to communicate” (UE01) or to speak “as close as possible to the

language used by a native speaker although this might be very difficult or even impossible” (SE03).

However, some teachers shared the opinion that expecting teacher trainees to have a native accent was not a central issue in their classes:

UE01: *I wouldn't expect any of the students to come away sounding like myself or like an American or Australian or a native speaker. (...) I'd expect them to sound like a foreigner, a Portuguese in this case and there's nothing wrong with that at all.*

SE01: *I don't care about accent, we're not native speakers.*

On the other hand, most subjects emphasized that they expect their ESP students to be able to communicate, in other words, “*to be able to be understood and understand what the other person is saying*” (SE01). Some subjects added that they do not expect ESP students to use correct language at all times. Finally, a few subjects identified some goals specific to the area of specialization such as to be able to read technical books and understand and use technical vocabulary.

The idea that the ESP student's accent should be clear enough to be understood and not prevent communication from happening was mentioned by some subjects. Moreover, some alluded to the international scope of English:

ST02: *It is important that the pronunciation is standard, which can be understood by a British speaker, an American from Texas or someone from South Africa.*

The issue of native target was brought up by a number of subjects. One subject provided his opinion based on his expectations as an ESP teacher:

UE01: *The goal should be some kind of native speaker standard. The less like a native speaker you sound, the more like a foreigner you're going to sound and that in different circumstances could be more prejudicial to your business. If*

you're trying to do business with someone, it could be much more advantageous to you to have a very high level of English.

Two other subjects expressed similar points of view identifying BrE and AmE or just BrE as the standard models.

However, some teachers observed that they do not have any kind of native target or model in mind when teaching ESP classes. Two subjects mentioned that they expect students to learn a universal, standard English. Another subject stated that he tries to make students “*aware of nativeness*” though he does not “*expect them to be native*” (UL02).

Students and teachers displayed quite similar views on the students’ use of spoken English as most of them referred to the fact that the learner should aim to be a competent speaker of the language. Curiously, teachers were more tolerant toward grammar mistakes than students. These different opinions might indicate that while students associate competence with grammatical correctness, teachers have a more inclusive view of a learner’s essential oral skills in English. Some students and teachers also chose to have a native target although teachers made no distinction between the nationalities of the native speaker to serve as the model. Remarkably, in the interviews, some students placed more emphasis on setting a native target when speaking English than when they answered the questionnaire.

7.3.3. Students’ goal in writing in English

The following section elaborates on the subjects’ opinion about a Portuguese learner’s goal when writing. Similar to the identification of the learner’s main goal when speaking English, subjects could choose between goals which aimed at native models or goals which emphasized the learner’s competence in English. Students were given the following goals (questionnaire Section II, question 4): (a) to write like the educated British; (b) to write like the educated American; (c) to write like the educated British or American; (d) to write like other native speakers (e.g. Australians, Canadians,...); and (e) to be a competent writer, that is, it’s OK to make some grammatical mistakes as long as I’m understood.

Results show that, unlike their goals in speaking English (section 7.3.1.), students had a more favourable attitude toward native models when considering their written production as most of them (51.7%) referred to some kind of native target when writing (goals *a*, *b*, *c* and *d*). Also, 41.4% said that they want to be competent writers of English. At the same time, most of these students accepted making grammatical mistakes when writing. It is possible to identify here some tension in the students' answers as they seem to reflect, on the one hand, what students ideally want and, on the other hand, what students think is feasible. Table 7.3 shows the percentage and frequency for each goal.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	a. To write like the educated British	28	11.3	12.0	12.0
	b. To write like the educated American	4	1.6	1.7	13.7
	c. To write like the educated British/American	59	23.9	25.2	38.9
	d. To write like other native speakers	30	12.1	12.8	51.7
	e. To be a competent writer although making some grammar mistakes	66	26.7	28.2	79.9
	f. To be a competent writer making no grammar mistakes	31	12.6	13.2	93.2
	g. Other	16	6.5	6.8	100.0
	Total	234	94.7	100.0	
Missing	System	13	5.3		
Total		247	100.0		

Table 7.3: Students' goal in writing in English – percentage and frequency for each goal³⁸

7.3.4. Teachers' belief of students' goal in writing in English

Teachers were asked about their students' goal when writing in English (questionnaire Section II, question 6): (a) to write like the educated British; (b) to write like the educated American; (c) to write like the educated British or American; (d) to write like

³⁸ A new category was created (to be a competent writer making no grammar mistakes) based on the answers provided in option *f* of the questionnaire (Other). Besides this new category, a few students referred to the fact that they want to write correctly, avoid mistakes, write like any native speaker, or just to be understood even though making mistakes.

other native speakers (e.g. Australians, Canadians,...); and (e) to be a competent writer. that is, it's OK to make some grammatical mistakes as long as he/she is understood.

Most teachers (70.8%) replied that they expect their students to be competent writers of English. Only 19.2% said that students should have a native target model when writing. Similar to the responses in section 7.3.2. (Teachers' belief of students' goal in speaking English), it is interesting to mention the absence of responses to options *a* (to write like the educated British) and *b* (to write like the educated American). Table 7.4 shows the percentage and frequency for the chosen goals³⁹.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid c. To write like the educated British or American	4	15.4	15.4	15.4
d. To write like other native speakers	1	3.8	3.8	19.2
e. To be a competent writer - although making some grammar mistakes	12	46.2	46.2	65.4
f. Other	9	34.6	34.6	100.0
Total	26	100.0	100.0	

Table 7.4: Teachers' belief of students' goal in writing in English – percentage and frequency of chosen goals

Teachers were also asked in the questionnaire (Section II, open ended question 6) if they thought teacher trainees and ESP students should have different goals when writing in English. Thirteen subjects observed that there should be some differences. Some said that while teacher trainees should be competent writers, making no grammar mistakes, ESP students should also be competent writers even though they could make some grammar mistakes as long as they are understood. Also, it was referred to the fact that ESP students should have an extensive knowledge of technical vocabulary. It is important to remark that one ESP teacher stated that for ESP students “*correction promotes an idea of efficiency and quality, even when the mistake doesn't prevent communication from happening*” (ST02).

³⁹ Most subjects who chose option *f* (Other) stated that students should aim to be competent writers but making no grammar mistakes.

Finally, one non-native teacher with experience in teaching in teacher training and ESP courses said that while ESP students should write as native speakers other than the British or American (option *d*), teacher trainees should write like the educated British or American (option *c*) “*because in order to teach one should be more perfect*” (UL05). It is quite noteworthy that this teacher regards BrE and AmE as ‘more perfect’ than other native varieties.

Nevertheless, nine subjects pointed out that there should be no differences in the students’ goal in writing English. Some teachers observed that students should be similarly competent and that they should make no grammar mistakes. It was also mentioned that they should write like the educated British or American, reinforcing these subjects’ choice in the previous question (option *c*).

Teachers were asked a similar question in the interview and some of them said that they expected teacher trainees to achieve a higher level of correctness than in spoken English. One teacher, however, made no distinctions between the students’ goals in speaking and in writing, expecting them “*to communicate at the same level that a native speaker of English would be able to communicate*” (UE01). In the ESP context, some subjects emphasized the importance of being able to communicate, to express and understand information, using adequate vocabulary to the context. Furthermore, those subjects noted that ESP students were expected to make as few mistakes as possible.

One subject expressed some concern about teacher trainees making grammar mistakes:

SE01: *If a teacher-to-be makes mistakes, he or she is probably not being a good teacher regardless of the other characteristics which make a good teacher.*

Basically, teachers had two different attitudes as far as ESP students making grammar mistakes is concerned. On the one hand, some teachers accepted mistakes as long as there is communication; on the other hand, other teachers had little or no flexibility in accepting grammar mistakes.

Undoubtedly, students and teachers have different views on the English learners’ main goal when writing. While most students have some kind of native target, not many

teachers share the same opinion. Instead, the vast majority of teachers expect Portuguese learners to be competent writers. In this matter, teachers have exhibited a more flexible attitude toward the students’ written competence. Such flexibility may be understood as a viewpoint of language use which takes into consideration non-native features which deviate from Standard English, at the same time underlining the international and diversified reality of the language. Students, on the other hand, seem to be more dependent on following the rules of native English.

7.3.5. Students’ perception of own English

When attempting to identify Portuguese students’ attitudes toward international English, one of the essential aspects to be considered is to examine the way they perceive the English they use. If, on the one hand, they may see their English as having (or having to have) the features of a specific native standard, on the other hand, they might acknowledge that their English has its own characteristics due to the influence of different native standards and of their own native language. It is presumed, though, that the latter point of view may be more in tune with a prevalent positive attitude toward the concept of English as an international language.

This section examines quantitative and qualitative data from the students’ perceptions of the English they use. In the questionnaire (Section III, question 7), students could choose one of the following options which somehow described the English they use: (a) BrE/closer to BrE; (b) AmE/closer to AmE; (c) another variety/closer to another variety; and (d) it has its own characteristics and is a mixture of BrE and AmE with influence of the Portuguese language.

Results show that more than 60% stated that their English is a mixture of AmE and BrE, with its own characteristics and influenced by the Portuguese language. In addition, it is essential to note that more students associated their English with the American than the British variety as almost 20% referred to the fact that the English they use is AmE/closer to AmE. Table 7.5 shows the frequency and percentage for each statement.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	BrE/closer to BrE	30	12.1	12.4	12.4
	AmE/closer to AmE	46	18.6	19.1	31.5
	Another variety/closer to another variety	3	1.2	1.2	32.8
	AmE+BrE with influence of Portuguese	152	61.5	63.1	95.9
	Other	10	4.0	4.1	100.0
	Total	241	97.6	100.0	
Missing	System	6	2.4		
Total		247	100.0		

Table 7.5: Students’ perception of own English – frequency and percentage

Students were also given the choice of providing a different answer (option *e*, other). However, only ten students did so: four students said that their English was a mixture of BrE and AmE but with no influence from the Portuguese language while six other students provided different answers.

In the interview, most subjects pointed out the influence of AmE, mostly through television, movies and music. For that reason, some subjects said that the English they use is closer to this variety. Others also acknowledged the influence of the Portuguese language on their pronunciation of English. Moreover, while some stated that their accents have characteristics of both AmE and BrE, other subjects observed that their pronunciation is neither American nor British, but “*an accent which is from nowhere*” (UL003).

As far as having an accent or making mistakes are concerned, some subjects called attention to the restraints faced by EFL speakers:

ST061: *I think it’s normal [to make mistakes and have an accent]. I do my best to improve (...) but there’s a limit. If I can’t get to native [competence], it’s because I’m not native.*

ST032: *An ESL speaker may improve the accent and get close to a native speaker. For me, a Portuguese native speaker myself, I think it’s difficult to get close to the British accent.*

The fact that most students acknowledge using English influenced by the American and British standards and their own mother tongue might signal that these students are aware that their use of English reflects the international conditions of the language.

7.4. Language ownership

This section analyses qualitative and quantitative data regarding subjects' attitude toward the ownership of English (see section 2.5.1). The concept of ownership is suggested through two pairs of statements: English is (a.1) a language which belongs to its native speakers; (a.2) a language which belongs to whoever uses it; (b.1) the language spoken in the UK, US, Australia, Canada, New Zealand,...; (b.2) a global language for international communication. In each pair, one of the statements refers to the national affiliation of the language (a.1 and b.1) while the other two statements associate English with its international use (a.2 and b.2).

7.4.1. Students' view on ownership of English

When asked to choose the statement which characterised their opinion about ownership of the English language (questionnaire Section III, question 2), English as “a language which belongs to whoever uses it” was chosen by 85% of the students. Regarding their opinion about the international or national scope of English, the statement that identified English as “a global language for international communication” was picked by 96.7% of the students.

The idea that the English language belongs to a specific group of people was not well accepted by the subjects. Even the subject who identified herself with BrE throughout the interview was not so straightforward about it:

UE006: *I'd like to think so but maybe it's not like that. I really like the British accent, I like to think they're the owners and that the rest is just imitation.*

Another subject showed a similar attitude:

ST032: *Perhaps 'ownership' is not the right word. (...) There's no doubt that the language is part of the culture of the society where this language was born. But an owner... we cannot say that the English are the owners of the English language because there was this expansion of the language and it has become practically an international language.*

Other subjects also perceived English as a language of international communication even though the link between native speakers and the language was not ignored:

UL033: *Nowadays, besides belonging to its native speakers, English is the language of communication and connection among every country, it is the English language which allows for this. It doesn't belong exclusively to its native speakers. Probably it belongs more to the natives but it belongs to everybody.*

Similarly, ownership was related to language competence:

ST061: *I think it's a universal thing. The owners of the English language are the natives but the non-natives can be on the same level. In general, there's no owner to the language.*

However, one subject seemed to incorporate the idea of international English and its consequences to language ownership:

UL033: *I believe nowadays English is less and less British. There are fewer speakers of standard English, British English, where English belongs only to the English people. Because nowadays English belongs to everybody. And each one has his own English, even through the internet people make up new words, new abbreviations so the English language is becoming less English.*

7.4.2. Teachers' view on ownership of English

Teachers also chose the statements which represented their opinion about ownership of English (questionnaire Section II, question 2). English as "a language which belongs to

whoever uses it” was chosen by 78.3% of the teachers and the statement that identified English as “a global language for international communication” was picked by 87%.

In the interview, a number of teachers stated that languages, English in particular, have no owners or that a sense of ownership might exist whenever someone uses them:

SE02: *No language has owners, (...) no society owns a language.*

UL01: *The one who speaks the language is the owner of that language in the act of speaking it.*

Other subjects, however, observed that in order to fully understand the idea of language ownership, besides considering the present condition of the language, one should look back to its historical background. In other words, English “*belongs originally to the English*” but because it is now “*a language of communication used by many people, (...) it belongs to the world*” (ST02), it belongs “*to everybody in different levels*” (ST03).

One subject expressed this opinion in terms of the different types of English language use in the world today. The subject applied the concept of ownership to three levels of language use: the native countries, the countries where English is an official language and the international context:

UE04: *It belongs [to the English] from a historical point of view. (...) Looking at the present, I think that English belongs to any country which has it as the official language, though I'm not considering the situation where English is the language of international communication. (...) Basically, on a second level English belongs to anyone who needs it in international contexts. (...) If English is the country's official language, I believe we can say that English belongs to them more than it belongs to, for example, the Portuguese. (...) I definitely see it on socio-political grounds but if we move on to a more pragmatic approach, then English belongs to whoever uses it and wants to learn it to communicate.*

In sum, most students and teachers share the view that English is a global language for international communication and belongs to whoever uses it. Although some subjects referred to the fact that there is some kind of ownership implied in the use of English as a native language, most highlighted that the global spread of English brought along a novel way of interpreting language ownership, making it possible to consider all English users as rightful owners of the language.

7.5. Language intelligibility

The following is the examination of qualitative data from the subjects' remarks about language intelligibility⁴⁰ (see section 2.3). It is hoped that the identification of the students' and teachers' assessment of the intelligibility of native and non-native English can help us better apprehend their attitudes to EIL in general. Having a positive or negative view on the intelligibility of non-native speakers' use of English may be an indicator of the subject's overall positive attitude toward the different kinds of Englishes spoken internationally.

7.5.1. Students' view on language intelligibility

Most subjects stated that it is easier to understand a native than a non-native speaker. One of the reasons provided was that they are used to studying and dealing with native English, namely British and American speakers. Moreover, it was mentioned that *“one can always understand a native speaker”* (ST061) and that *“a native speaker can simplify the language so as to facilitate communication”* (UL033). These subjects added that communication between *“two non-native speakers could be more complicated if neither were at ease with the language”* (UL033) and that it is difficult to understand a NNS if he/she *“doesn't have a good competence in English”* (ST061). Two other subjects said that *“non-natives don't know how to pronounce words correctly”* (UE006) and that understanding non-natives might be a difficult task as they *“suffer the influence of another language”* and might have *“a strong accent”* (ST032).

⁴⁰ The term 'intelligibility' used in this section refers to what some researchers designate as 'perceived comprehensibility' (the listener's perception of a speaker's comprehensibility) as opposed to "actual intelligibility, or how well listeners actually understand the stimulus" (Major et al., 2002:177).

Conversely, some subjects believed that it is easier to understand a NNS. The major reason would be that there is more flexibility between two non-natives than between a non-native and a native, as in this case the non-native would feel the pressure to speak the language as correctly as possible. In other words, the conversation between two non-natives is more simplified. One subject makes an interesting comment from the standpoint of an EFL learner:

UL033: *Maybe the non-native speaker is easier to understand. If it's an American or a British speaking normally, there's always something we don't understand whereas if it's somebody whose English is just like mine, I mean, something in between AmE and BrE, perhaps it's much easier to understand. I guess a Portuguese can understand another Portuguese speaking English better than a British person speaking English.*

Finally, one subject revealed a different approach to the issue of intelligibility by emphasizing linguistic competence and exposure to NSs' and NNSs' language:

UL007: *If I meet a Scottish speaker perhaps it's going to be harder to understand than an English person from whatever region he might be. So, I believe it has to do with the fact that I'm used or not to that kind of English (...). As far as non-natives are concerned, I believe it also has to do with what we're used to listening. For me, it's not difficult to understand a Portuguese, a French person or a Spaniard, but possibly not a Japanese. But it also has to do with the speaker's competence in the language.*

7.5.2. Teachers' view on language intelligibility

Some subjects saw language intelligibility not in terms of the speaker's native or non-native origin but rather depending on more individual characteristics. Some teachers highlighted the problems that may appear when both native and non-native speakers interact:

SE02: *I'd say it really depends on each person but if we want to consider language varieties, there are some native varieties that I find really hard to*

understand. (...) On the other hand, some non-native speakers have very little fluency and so many pronunciation problems, maybe because of first language interference, that it's very difficult to comprehend them.

ST03: I understand it has to do with individual capacities of a native speaker to understand a non-native and vice-versa.

Some subjects also called attention to the fact that communication does not rely solely on linguistic factors:

ST03: I think you can't put things in general terms, (...) it has to do with other skills rather than the linguistic only.

ST02: Communication is also negotiation so as long people possess the tools for basic comprehension, the rest can be negotiated.

Meanwhile, one subject remarked that the students' exposure to different varieties plays a significant role in intelligible communication:

UE04: I think it depends a lot on the student's experience, on whether he had contact with native speakers during the learning process or not. (...) There are many different native speakers and with the cultural diversity in England, where we find all kinds of natives, Indian, Pakistani, Chinese, such a diversity of accents.

Another subject identified what is intelligible to EFL students in Portugal:

UE03: They probably understand a native speaker better, the native speaker's received pronunciation. We have to distinguish this native speaker because if we're talking about an Irish or a Scottish speaker, they don't understand them at all. We're talking about received pronunciation. (...) It's not any native speaker, it's RP, it's BBC English that they understand. (...) But someday they'll understand General American better.

Finally, there were some subjects who believed that NNSs can produce more intelligible speech. First, the NNS will use only essential information to get the message through whereas the NS may make no adaptations to the language:

SE03: What the non-native speaker says is basic information so that the other may understand what he means. The native speaker uses the language as he does in common day-to-day situations.

Similarly, some teachers said that many times NSs do not realize that they have to make their speech intelligible to the NNS:

UL01: In many cases the native speaker is not aware of what they're saying, they're not grading their language to be understood by a non-native speaker, they don't have that linguistic awareness that a non-native speaker has.

UE02: When they use too many regional traits, it's difficult for someone from another region or who's not a native speaker to understand the message.

There seems to be no consensus among students and teachers about the intelligibility of native and non-native English. On the whole, several reasons were provided to explain their different opinions about what makes one kind of speaker more intelligible than the other. The lack of agreement on the intelligibility of native and non-native speakers may indicate that rather than the speaker's language affiliation, other features such as the user's familiarity with varieties and accents and the language competence of the speaker should be considered when attempting to communicate using English.

7.6. Native teachers (NTs) and non-native teachers (NNTs) in ELT

The following is the interpretation of quantitative and qualitative data which reflects subjects' attitude toward NTs and NNTs in ELT (see section 2.7.1). In the questionnaire, subjects were first asked to choose one of the four statements proposed regarding their opinion about the best way to learn English: (a) always with a native teacher; (b) always with a non-native teacher; (c) it doesn't matter if it's a native or non-

native teacher; and (d) with native **and** non-native teachers (it depends on the teaching level/stage). Then, they were given the opportunity to explain their choice in an open ended question. Finally, subjects were asked about the roles of NTs and NNTs in the interview.

It is assumed that the subjects who favour NTs in the English language classroom would emphasize the acquisition of native-like competence in English while subjects who acknowledge the significance of NNTs would be more tolerant toward a kind of language competence which does not reproduce the features of a native standard. In other words, through the subjects' views about the roles of NTs and NNTs, we might be able to build up our knowledge of the subjects' attitude toward EIL.

7.6.1. Students' choice of NTs and NNTs

Data from the questionnaire (Section III, question 5) show that most students did not see any type of teacher as the best way of learning English. While 39.3% said that it would be better to have both NTs and NNTs, a similar number of students (37.2%) said that it did not matter if the teacher was native or non-native. In contrast, 19.0% preferred to have a NT while only 4.5% answered that they would always want a NNT (see Appendix 7.3 for the percentage and frequency for each statement).

The students' comments in the open ended question show that those who chose having NTs and NNTs in different learning levels/stages identified three different situations in which a specific type of teacher would be more suitable (the numbers in brackets indicate the amount of times the reason was mentioned): NNTs for beginning levels (35), NTs for intermediate and advanced levels/higher education (37) and NNTs or NTs for beginning level (5).

The choice of NNTs for beginning levels can be associated with the reasons referred by the students who preferred NNTs, namely the use of Portuguese when teaching English and the teachers' knowledge of their students' difficulties.

Furthermore, these subjects also pointed out some advantages of both types of teachers. Table 7.6 shows the frequency and reasons most referred to.

<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Reason</i>
NTs	
14	Because NTs have deeper knowledge of the language
10	To acquire native accent/correct pronunciation
5	To learn about native culture
4	To improve/practice the language
3	Because NTs use correct English
3	To be able to speak/use English in class
2	To learn vocabulary/expressions
2	Because we can contact the language in its original form
NNTs	
13	Because NNTs can teach/explain in Portuguese
5	Because NNTs speak the students' L1
4	Because NNTs understand/know students' difficulties
3	To facilitate translation
2	Because there is more involvement between teacher and student
2	Because students can be understood

Table 7.6: Students’ reasons for having both NTs and NNTs

Students who had no preference for either type of teacher came up with five major reasons for doing so. Table 7.7 shows these reasons and their frequency.

<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Reason</i>
41	What matters is that the teacher should know how to teach
31	What matters is that the teacher should know the English language
26	What matters is that the teacher should be competent ⁴¹
8	What matters is that the teacher motivates students
4	Learning depends mostly on the student

Table 7.7: Students’ reasons for having no preference for NTs or NNTs

In essence, these students clearly emphasized the importance of the teachers’ pedagogic and linguistic competence regardless of their language affiliation.

From among the students who preferred to have always a NT, 41 students provided a number of reasons. Table 7.8 shows the frequency and the items most referred to.

⁴¹ The third most cited reason (the teacher should be competent) could be interpreted as linked to the two most frequent ones (knowledge to teach/knowledge of English). However, as subjects made no clear reference as to what the idea of competence exactly referred, a separate item was created.

<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Reason</i>
14	To acquire native accent/correct pronunciation
11	Because NTs know the language better than NNTs
6	To learn about native culture
6	To be able to speak/use English in class
5	To be able to listen to English in class
5	To learn vocabulary/expressions
4	Because NTs teach in a more appropriate and correct way
4	Because it is easier to learn the language
2	To learn correct grammar
2	Because we can contact the language with no L1(Portuguese) interference

Table 7.8: Students’ reasons for preferring NTs

The most frequently referred reasons indicate that students expect to acquire native accent and learn about native culture. Moreover, they mention that NTs are more competent in the language making it possible for them to learn and use English more effectively.

As for the subjects who preferred NNTs, 9 students indicated two reasons for doing so: 6 students said that NNTs can teach/explain in Portuguese while 3 students referred to the fact that NNTs understand/know students’ difficulties.

If we consider the answers provided by all subjects who identified some kind of preference (NTs, NNTs or both NTs and NNTs), we are able to recognize the most important aspects related to the students’ view about NTs and NNTs (the numbers in brackets indicate the amount of times the reason was mentioned):

NTs:

- Because NTs have/allow a deeper knowledge of the language (25)
- To acquire a native accent/correct pronunciation (24)
- To learn about native culture (11)
- To be able to speak/use English in class (9)
- To learn vocabulary/expressions (9)
- To be able to listen to English in class (5)
- Because we can contact the language in its original form/with no L1 interference (4)

NNTs:

- Because NNTs can teach/explain in Portuguese (19)

- Because NNTs understand/know students' difficulties (7)
- Because NNTs speak the students' L1 (5)
- To facilitate translation (3)

It is meaningful to notice that students who saw advantages in both NTs and NNTs made references to basically the same reasons pointed out by those students who preferred either NTs or NNTs. The major difference between these two groups of students seems to be that while most of them hope to benefit from both types of teachers, some only consider it advantageous when having only NTs or NNTs.

Furthermore, different opinions were raised in the interview. First of all, some of the students expressed positive opinions about having NTs:

SE010: *I believe having native teachers helps us very much because it's going to compensate for the lack of contact with native speakers that most people have.*

However, some subjects pointed out some negative as well as positive aspects of having NTs:

UE051: *I understand it's good to have a native teacher, American or British, because we have that contact with the language, we know how it's spoken (...) but maybe this teacher might have difficulties if he doesn't speak Portuguese and when we ask questions, perhaps he won't explain well.*

UL033: *I think it's always important for a student along his school life to have at least one native teacher (...) but I truly believe that the Portuguese teachers of English are more able to transmit knowledge because they can better understand the students' difficulties. So I think it's more important not to be native.*

Other subjects seemed to share this opinion regarding NNTs:

UL001: *Having gone through the same experience, the Portuguese teacher can understand why the student makes this mistake, the way to overcome this problem and I believe that even the linguistic competence [of NTs and NNTs] is similar.*

Moreover, some students mentioned that both teachers are important and necessary in different learning stages:

ST032: *I think in the beginning (...) it's important that it's somebody who speaks the same language (...) because it's necessary to make the connection between Portuguese and English and communicate when the person doesn't know the language yet. When the learner can manage the language then I think it should be a teacher with English as a mother tongue.*

UL033: *I believe that in the initial stages it should be a teacher who speaks the language of the student because in these stages there are a lot of difficulties. But in more advanced stages we can only gain if we have teachers who speak English as a native language (...) because we learn many things even when the teacher is not aware that he's teaching them.*

Finally, two students observed that the teacher's first language is not a central issue:

ST061: *I think it doesn't matter if it's native or non-native as long as it's a good teacher (...) and has a good knowledge of the language.*

UL001: *It depends more on the competence of the teacher than on the fact that he's native or non-native.*

7.6.2. Teachers' views on NTs and NNTs

Teachers were also asked about learning English through NTs or NNTs (questionnaire Section II, question 7). Most teachers (70.8%) replied that the best way to learn English is having both native and non-native teachers. Next, 25% of the subjects believed that it does not matter if the teacher is native or non-native. Interestingly, only one teacher said that learning English is always best with a NT (see Appendix 7.4 for the frequency and percentage for each statement).

In the open ended section of the question, from among those teachers who said that teaching should engage both NTs and NNTs, most of them emphasized that while NNTs are generally aware of the needs of the students and can use their mother tongue to compare and contrast the two languages, NTs have a deeper knowledge of the language as far as vocabulary and usage are concerned and can more easily integrate cultural and sociolinguistic issues in the language class. Some subjects also observed that NNTs should teach in the initial levels of learning while NTs should teach in more advanced levels.

On the other hand, some of the teachers who had stated that it does not matter if it is a native or non-native teacher commented that the teacher should be competent, regardless of his/her origin.

In the interview, teachers remarked on the importance of NTs and NNTs. Fundamentally, teachers displayed different attitudes toward NSs. On the one hand, one subject referred to the fact that learning with NSs is fundamental, that students should have the opportunity to be taught by a NS regardless of their nationality:

SE03: It can be an American or Irish, whoever uses the language on a daily basis, whoever has English as a native language. (...) We learn better with native teachers.

On the other hand, another subject had a quite negative opinion about NTs based on her own experience:

SE01: They're the worst teachers I had. (...) As native speakers they had no problems at all in using the language but as teachers they were not as good as I hoped them to be.

Somewhere in the middle of these two positions, two other subjects observed that NTs may have some negative as well as positive aspects:

ST01: We can achieve better fluency and our accent and language structure will be closer to that of a native speaker (...) but if the teacher hasn't been trained

well, doesn't know the why's and isn't aware of the difficulties of a number of things...

UE04: *The native teacher won't let students use another language in class. (...) The drawback is that the teaching may be biased. If it's a teacher from England, we'll only have the English accent, English culture... (...) Also, there may be a sort of barrier between the teacher and the student. I've got students who react like 'Ok, I don't understand a word he's saying so I'll turn off'".*

Furthermore, one subject pointed out that one of the advantages of NNTs is that they might be more aware of why students make certain mistakes. Similarly, other subjects remarked that NNTs have the advantage of dealing with both linguistic systems:

UL01: *I think that non-native teachers have an advantage over native teachers simply because they can speak both languages well. A non-native teacher has different insights into what potential problems could be. (...) They also know enough about their own culture to point out idiosyncrasies and oddities in the foreign language culture whereas very often you find that the native speaker has not this type of awareness and loses valuable opportunities.*

At the same time, several teachers were able to identify the assets of both NTs and NNTs thus regarding them as complementary. The following are some of the positive aspects of NTs:

- NTs *"have a certain novelty value to them and it can be quite fun for a student to encounter a native speaker"* (UE01);
- NTs are *"more competent in the language"* (ST02);
- NTs *"know the 'real' language, not 'textbook English'"* (SE02);
- *"At higher levels, certainly, if a student wants to interact with native speakers then a native teacher is going to be very useful"* (UE01).

Conversely, NNTs would be preferable because of the following:

- *“In the lower levels of language learning, NNTs are far more useful [because] they’ve gone through this process themselves, they know what it is like to learn this particular language” (UE01);*
- *“The NNT speaks the language of the students” (SE02);*
- The NNT *“can help the students and even predict where the students are going to make mistakes” (ST02).*

Basically, these subjects wanted to say that students can only gain by having both types of teachers:

ST02: *The ideal would be to have both native and non-native teachers.*

UL02: *There’s room for both native and non-native teachers.*

Finally, one subject provided an individual outlook on this issue:

UE03: *Many times the teacher’s personality overshadows the linguistic aspect. (...) Perhaps students tend to believe they prefer a native teacher because they can learn more, because the teacher knows more vocabulary... I’m not sure things are like that. Also, a native teacher from which English speaking country? I’ve had native teachers from Scotland, Ireland, Canada and I guess what makes it an enriching experience is actually the teacher’s background. We’ll always like the teacher, not his accent.*

Although most students and teachers indicated that it is best to learn English with both NTs and NNTs, this opinion is more widespread among teachers. Students, on the other hand, seem also to accept the idea that what matters is the teacher’ competence, not his/her language affiliation. Moreover, students and teachers had similar points of view about the advantages and disadvantages of NTs and NNTs. In sum, subjects in this study seem to adopt an approach to ELT which recognizes the importance of both NTs and NNTs.

7.7. Students’ motivation to learn English

The following section examines data from the students' questionnaire and interview which looked into the students' motivation when learning English (see section 2.7.2). First, students reacted to twenty-two sentences (questionnaire Section III, question 1) identifying their primary motivations. Next, their choices were arranged in five different motivational factors: instrumental motivation, integrative motivation, assimilative motivation, "international use" motivation and personal motivation (see Appendix 7.5 for a description of the five motivational factors).

If, on the one hand, students who display "international use" and instrumental motivation might adopt an international approach to the English language, students who demonstrate having integrative or assimilative motivation (although integrative orientation does not imply a direct contact with the target language community; see section 2.7.2 for a distinction between assimilative and integrative motivation) might stand by a more culturally-centred view on learning and using English.

After statistical analysis of the five motivational factors, results showed the following order of importance: instrumental motivation, "international use" motivation, assimilative motivation, integrative motivation, and personal satisfaction (see Appendix 7.6 for the mean score for each factor).

Apparently, students in this study demonstrated having a set of motivations for learning English which may help them perceive English as an international language instead of a language which is associated with specific cultures.

Variables analysis

The ANOVA test found statistically significant differences in the following variables: affiliation, course, length of time studying English and spending time outside Portugal.

A. Affiliation

When considering data specific to university and polytechnic students, data show that polytechnic students give more importance to instrumental motivation than university students (Sig. .005; $p < .05$) (see Appendix 7.7).

B. Course

The ANOVA test also showed that ESP students give more importance to instrumental motivation (Sig. .006; $p < .05$) than teacher trainees. On the other hand, teacher trainees give more importance to integrative motivation (Sig. .040; $p < .05$) and personal satisfaction (Sig. .026; $p < .05$) than ESP students (see Appendix 7.8).

C. Length of time studying English

Statistical tests indicated that students who have been studying English for more than 12 years give more importance to integrative motivation (Sig. .030; $p < .05$) than the other students. In fact, students tend to increase their integrative motivation as they spend more time learning English (see Appendix 7.9).

D. Spending time outside Portugal: the student has been to an English speaking country (ESC) or a non-English speaking country (NESC):

Data confirmed that there are significant differences in the way each group of students see assimilative motivation. Students who have been to an ESC give more importance to assimilative motivation than the remaining students (Sig. .003; $p < .05$) (Appendix 7.10).

Data analysis based on the above variables shows some interesting differences on the students' motivation to learn English, particularly concerning instrumental and integrative motivation. First of all, ESP students are more instrumentally motivated than teacher trainees and teacher trainees are more integratively oriented than ESP students. Moreover, as students spend more time studying English, they tend to increase their integrative motivation. In other words, integrativeness and instrumentality are clearly influenced by the students' course and length of time studying English.

In the interview, a number of subjects indicated their need to communicate with other people as their strongest motivation to learn English:

UE051: *I think it's because we're in an age of globalization. Everything is getting closer, the borders are getting shorter, even disappearing and I think if I can't communicate with other people... I think communication is the most important (...) I think the worst that could happen to me was if I tried to communicate with someone but I couldn't. And I think English is the right tool to prevent that from happening.*

Other reasons identified by the subjects were personal satisfaction, professional needs, to spend time abroad (in native and non-native countries) on vacation or to work, to listen to music and to get information from books, television and newspapers. In particular, one subject emphasized the instrumental reasons why most people learn English:

UE006: *Most people learn English (...) to survive on a daily basis, to read texts, to surf the internet, to try to understand what they see in the news (...) it's basically for that. We don't see many people in schools who are learning English because they like it. We rarely find someone like that.*

In short, students manifestly provided reasons for studying English which focused on using the language for international communication and for instrumental motives.

7.8. Summary of chapter

This chapter attempted to conclude the answer to the second set of research questions (2.a, 2.b and 2.c) related to the subjects' attitudes toward EIL by examining the following issues of language affiliation raised in the questionnaires and interviews: (a) subjects' attitudes toward native speakers' and non-native speakers' use of English; (b) subjects' belief of learners' goal in speaking English; (c) subjects' belief of learners' goal in writing in English; (d) students' perception of own English; (e) subjects' view on ownership of English; (f) subjects' view on English language intelligibility; (g)

subjects' attitudes toward native and non-native teachers; and (h) students' motivation to learn English.

On reflection, subjects tended to recognize the value of NNSs and the English they use. In particular, most students and teachers believed that NSs should be more tolerant toward the English used by NNSs. However, while most students thought that NSs should try to use English in a way to make it easier for non-natives to understand, most teachers said that NSs should use English the same way when communicating with other NSs. In other words, teachers believe NSs should not adapt the language according to who they are talking to.

Most subjects also agreed that the Portuguese EFL learner should aim to be a competent speaker and writer of English, instead of working toward a native target. Nevertheless, some students were inclined to accept a native model when writing in English. For these subjects, while there is some flexibility in spoken English in terms of having a Portuguese accent and occasionally making grammatical mistakes, grammar mistakes are not supposed to happen in written English. Moreover, the majority of the students referred to the fact that their English is a mixture of AmE and BrE and with features that are consequence of the influence of their first language. The fact that these students admit that the English they use is modified by at least two different varieties and is altered due to first language influence can be associated with their views that the Portuguese learner should be a competent user of English and not aim to achieve native-like proficiency.

The role of the NS is also reduced as most students and teachers identify English as a global language for international communication which belongs to whoever uses it. However, subjects were not able to indicate if it is easier for them to understand a NS or a NNS of English. Furthermore, most subjects tended to be aware of the value of both native and non-native teachers in ELT, attaching different but intrinsic value to each group of teachers.

Finally, students displayed an approach which emphasizes the international role of English rather than the contact with native speakers when they recognized having instrumental and "international use" motivation for learning and using English.

All things considered, subjects seem to adopt a pragmatic and international attitude toward the English language. Most of the time, students and teachers distinguished the uses and features of native and non-native English and regarded the native speakers not as model providers but as one of the different groups of users of English as an international language.

Chapter 8: Overall discussion and conclusion

8.1. Introduction

The focus of this study is on the current role of English as an international language in English language education in Portugal, how this is manifested in policy and materials, and how it is perceived by students and teachers. The importance of this research is twofold. Firstly, the participation of EFL users (or members of the Expanding Circle) is crucial in the development of the debate about the role of English as a language of global use in the 21st century. Secondly, it is very important to explore language users' attitudes toward learning and using English during a period of pedagogical change, resulting from the global penetration of English.

The status and role of English as an international language in the Expanding Circle have not been given the importance they merit (see Tomlinson, 2004) and the situation in Portugal was available for research as a potential case study. Fundamentally, this study had two aims. Firstly, it set out to conduct in-depth systematic research into the main characteristics of ELT in Portugal with regard to English as an International Language. This was done through analysis of syllabi and pedagogic materials. Secondly, it intended to investigate the attitudes of Portuguese users of English (students and teachers) as far as the international role of the language was concerned.

Essentially, this research hoped to perceive what happens when *theory* becomes *practice*.

This chapter is divided into three sections: 8.2 presents a summary and discussion of the findings in this study, based on the issues addressed in the research questions, 8.3 discusses the contributions and implications of the study to the field of ELT, and 8.4 provides some concluding remarks.

8.2. Overview and discussion of research findings

This research was expected to offer meaningful and valuable findings to English language educators and applied linguists all over the world so as to contribute to the ongoing debate on the issues associated with learning and teaching English as an international language. The study responded to three sets of research questions concerned with representations of EIL in ELT policies and classroom materials and students' and teachers' attitudes toward EIL.

8.2.1. EIL in English language policies and classroom materials

The first set of research questions answered in Chapter 4 dealt with the theory of EIL in Portugal:

1. How do the current ELT *policies* and *materials* for basic and secondary education in Portugal represent EIL?

1.a. Is the English taught/learned in Portugal today culturally attached to English-speaking communities or internationally oriented and ideologically neutral?

1.b. Is the English taught/learned in Portugal today linguistically centred on British English only or does it present characteristics of other varieties (American English or other native and non-native varieties)?

First of all, three documents which define the current English language policies in Portugal were analysed: the 1995 English Syllabus for Basic and Secondary Education, the 2001 Basic Education National Curriculum and the 2002 Secondary School Educational Reform. In general, it is possible to conclude that the three documents adopted different approaches to EIL.

The 1995 English Syllabus clearly emphasizes British and American cultures and varieties. The importance of focusing on British and American cultures can be found in most of the sections of the syllabus. However, in spite of the references to the languages of the target cultures, explicit identifications of language features of AmE and BrE are somewhat scarce. This situation was aggravated with the 1998 Guidelines to Syllabi Implementation which removed all references to differences between AmE and BrE – except in Year 12 due to its particular objectives.

On the other hand, the Basic Education Curriculum established in 2001 stresses the intercultural and interpersonal aspects of foreign language learning. Although this document makes no specific references to the learning and teaching of the English language, it identifies the development of written and oral skills in foreign language learning which are concerned with the target language cultures and communities.

Finally, the 2002 Secondary School Reform advocates a view of English which endorses its international role through the frequent references to English-speaking cultures. Nonetheless, even though it calls attention to the linguistic and cultural diversity of English, there are few explicit references to linguistic characteristics of native varieties of English.

In sum, while the three documents analysed stress the cultural aspects of the English language either as an instrument of intercultural communication or, more specifically, through the diversity of English-speaking cultures, the linguistic features of the international varieties of English are given limited attention. Although the attention given to English-speaking cultures found in the documents analysed support the idea proposed by many linguists that English should be approached as a tool for intercultural communication (see section 2.3; Campbell et al., 1983; Gnutzmann, 1999; Baxter, 1991; Smith, 1987), more emphasis should be placed on the linguistic features of EIL firstly, through explicit identification of the differences between AmE and BrE and secondly, through the presentation of native and non-native varieties of English (see section 2.7; Baxter, 1991; Medgyes, 1999a; Modiano, 2000, 2001a, 2001b). A balanced approach to native and non-native cultures and the linguistic features of their varieties/accents is more likely to develop coherent and sensible ideas about EIL in the language users' minds.

Moreover, the three documents agree that the student's culture and mother tongue play a substantial role in the EFL class in order to better understand and develop an attitude of openness and tolerance toward the target cultures. Significantly, Trifonovitch (1981) and Cook (1999) proposed that the EIL learner's culture and first language have an essential role in the English language classroom (see section 2.7). McKay (2003) reinforced this idea when she examined ELT in Chile and found out that EFL teachers

in public schools recognized the value of including topics that dealt with local Chilean places and people. Basically, the emphasis on the student's culture and language recognizes that in intercultural communication English is used to convey the speaker's own feelings, habits and beliefs.

Besides the three documents mentioned above, classroom materials used in basic and secondary schools were also examined. First, references to and use of AmE, BrE and other native and non-native varieties and their cultures were identified. Then, the materials were analysed based on the guidelines proposed in the syllabi previously examined.

When comparing the set of basic school materials which follow the 1995 Syllabus with the ones published after the 2001 Curriculum, no relevant change was made in the way they treated English varieties and cultures. All in all, the new curriculum has not led to an increase of references to and use of AmE or other native varieties and their cultures yet.

As for the secondary school materials published after the 2002 Reform, there was no change of focus from American and British cultures to English-speaking cultures in general as proposed in the reform. Likewise, no emphasis was found on features of native varieties of English.

To sum up, rather than identifying an overall change in the more recently published materials (after the 2001 and 2002 reforms), it seemed that different sets of materials emphasized distinct aspects of EIL such as references to and use of AmE, references to native varieties and cultures other than British and American, international aspects not specific to any culture and Portuguese culture. The more recently published materials clearly make more references to native and non-native cultures rather than the features of their varieties of English, a trend which was also found in the examination of the ELT syllabi. All things considered, the materials analysed followed closely the guidelines proposed by the syllabi giving attention to the cultural aspects of English rather than its linguistic features.

Most importantly, there was a strong focus on BrE and British culture in most sets of materials. Even so, AmE and American culture were often represented. Such emphasis on the UK and US reinforces what McArthur (1998, 2001) calls the ‘two principal parts’ of world English (see section 2.2). These findings seem to corroborate Seidlhofer’s (1999) comments on the almost exclusive references in pedagogical materials to the native culture as the source of the language to be taught.

However, according to Modiano (2001a), an emphasis placed on the British and American varieties may influence students in perceiving other English varieties as less important and the English language as the property of a specific group of native speakers. In other words, the lack of focus on other native varieties is not in tune with an approach to English as an international language (see section 2.7). If English is learned as a tool for intercultural communication, students are expected to develop the ability to understand and be understood by a wide variety of English users. Such competence is more likely to be developed if students are exposed to an international frame of reference of the language instead of dealing with practices that relate to one or two varieties only.

8.2.2. Students’ and teachers’ attitudes toward EIL

The second set of research questions aimed at identifying the practical side of EIL in Portugal through the language users’ (students and teachers) attitudes toward the central aspects related to the international scope of English:

2. How does the *practice* of ELT in Portugal today represent EIL?

2.a. What are the students’ attitudes toward EIL?

2.b. What are the teachers’ attitudes toward EIL?

2.c. Are there significant differences between the students’ and the teachers’ attitudes toward EIL?

This set of research questions was developed in three chapters. Chapter 5 approached students’ and teachers’ attitudes toward the linguistic dimensions of EIL, Chapter 6 dealt with the cultural dimensions and Chapter 7 addressed some issues of language affiliation.

Essentially, subjects displayed positive attitudes toward mixing AmE and BrE, and learning about native varieties and international features of English. Students' and teachers' attitudes toward mixing varieties support Modiano's (1999a) remarks that mixing AmE and BrE is an expected linguistic feature when English is used internationally (see section 2.2.1). However, the findings in this study contradict Virtanen & Lindgrén's (1998) Finnish and Swedish university students' attitude toward mixing varieties as those subjects preferred consistency in one variety (see section 2.2.1). Apparently, Portuguese learners are closer to an international approach to learning and using English than some other European students as far as mixing AmE and BrE is concerned. This feature alone is not enough to indicate that Portuguese students are more internationally oriented when learning and using English than Finnish or Swedish students. However, it is important to identify differences and similarities between different groups of language users so as to better understand what happens when English is used in intercultural communication.

The subjects' favourable attitudes toward learning about native varieties and international features of English help endorse a view of learning English as an international language such as that presented by Trifonovitch (1981) and Modiano (2001b) referring to situations when English is learned as a tool for intercultural communication and students are supposed to listen to and develop the necessary skills to understand a wide range of varieties of English (see section 2.7). The students' positive view of learning about native varieties and international features of English may help promote an approach to teaching English focused on a global perspective on the language.

Although students and teachers in Portugal seemed to attach importance to some features of learning and using English as a global language, they adopted a linguacentred view of English which related learning and using the language with the British variety. These findings are similar to Matsuda's (2003) comments that in Japan, English is still being taught as an inner-circle language, based almost exclusively on AmE or BrE. According to Modiano (2001a, 2001b), such 'nation-state centred view' of teaching and learning English which emphasize culture specific varieties such as BrE should be replaced by an international frame of reference (see section 2.7).

Students in this study claimed that they like the English accent best and would like to have that accent. Moreover, most students were able to identify the nationality of the British speakers in the audio and video activities. The students' ability to identify the British speakers might be explained by Smith's (1992) comments that intelligibility may seem to depend on the familiarity the language user has with a variety of English. In other words, the greater the familiarity, the more likely the user will understand speakers of that variety (see section 2.3). Also, the findings in this study may indicate that the familiarity with the British variety may have led students to choose it as the variety they like best and would like to have. Therefore, students should be exposed to different varieties of English in order to develop the necessary skills to be able to understand and appreciate the features of international English.

Furthermore, subjects who said that consistency in one variety is expected said that BrE is the 'correct' variety and that it should be the norm. These findings seem to endorse Virtanen and Lindgrén's (1998) study where most subjects preferred to be consistent in BrE rather than mixing varieties (see section 2.2.1).

In essence, this study argues that if English is to be taught and learned as a global language, more significance should be given to native varieties, especially AmE. As Crystal (1997) pointed out, the future development of world English is likely to depend more on American English than British English, even though non-native varieties may also play a central role (see section 2.2). On the whole, many subjects called attention to the importance of AmE and knowing the differences between this variety and BrE. According to Modiano (1999a, 2000), in order to use English more successfully, the learner and user of EIL should be able to distinguish the differences between BrE and AmE (see section 2.2.1). Modiano (1999b) identifies some features of these two varieties which may cause misunderstandings not only among British and American speakers but also non-natives who follow one of those varieties. As 'the two principal parts' of world English (McArthur, 2001) and the two most influential varieties in ELT all over the world, the language user will be continuously exposed to the distinctive features of both AmE and BrE.

However, most subjects admitted not being familiar with or did not acknowledge the relevance of learning about non-native varieties of English. Medgyes (1999a) and Cook (1999) referred to the importance of dealing with non-native varieties and the language used by non-native speakers in the English language classroom. However, even though some teachers in this study recognized the importance of dealing with varieties other than BrE and AmE, they do not seem to have integrated them into the language class.

As far as the cultural dimensions of EIL are concerned, it can be said that subjects viewed learning about culture in English lessons positively. Most subjects regarded British, American and other native cultures as important. Moreover, subjects also considered learning about international cultural aspects not specific to any country as relevant, which seems to reinforce Gnutzmann's (1999) remarks that rather than focusing on target culture-specific topics, a stronger orientation toward international topics should be more appropriate in the teaching of English as an international language (see section 2.7).

However, most students and teachers considered non-native cultures (ESL and EFL) as quite irrelevant. Apparently, subjects have not assimilated the importance of non-native cultures even though several applied linguists observed that teaching materials should focus on native as well as non-native communities (see section 2.7; Trifonovitch, 1981; Baxter, 1991; Gnutzmann, 1999; and Modiano, 2001b).

More specifically, subjects identified British culture as the most important culture in ELT, although also giving American culture some prominence. On the whole, subjects value the two most influential English-speaking cultures – US/UK – but at the same time, they also seem to want to approach English as an international language (though not through non-native cultures). These findings reinforce the view advocated in this study that more research is needed into the sociocultural aspects of language teaching in the Expanding Circle. While Phillipson (1992a), Canagarajah (1999), Pennycook (1994, 1998) and Brutt-Griffler (2002) criticized the penetration of the English language based on the socio-political and educational contexts of some Outer Circle countries, a similar approach should be adopted to the Expanding Circle. The findings in this study may

indicate that ideologies from the 'centre' – the UK and US – seem to dominate the communities in the 'periphery', as suggested by Phillipson (1992a) (see section 2.6).

Finally, the analysis of some issues of language affiliation (the roles of native and non-native speakers/teachers, ownership of English, learners' goal/motivation to learn English and their perception of the English they use) showed that subjects display an overall favourable attitude towards the international scope of English. More specifically, most subjects recognized the value of non-native speakers and their English. Similarly, students and teachers attached intrinsic value to both native and non-native teachers. The subjects in this study seem to agree with several applied linguists who have pointed out that both native and non-native teachers are equally effective, each one possessing different but complementary characteristics (see section 2.7.1; Phillipson, 1992; Medgyes, 1992, 1999b; Seidlhofer, 1999).

Moreover, subjects acknowledged that English is the lingua franca of international communication, belonging to whoever uses it. Such viewpoint defies the general assumption in ELT referred to by Widdowson (1994) that the English language belongs to the English. Most students and teachers in this study agree with Widdowson when he refers to the fact that as English becomes an international language, it is no longer property of England or any other native country (see section 2.5.1).

Most subjects also agreed that the Portuguese learner should aim to become a competent user of English, as an alternative to aiming to achieve native proficiency. Following the model of English as an international language, Gnutzmann (1999) and Modiano (2000) proposed that learners do not have to conform to the British or American standards, as native speaker competence is an unrealistic goal for non-native speakers in ELT (see section 2.7). By endorsing these viewpoints, subjects in this study recognized the importance of adopting an international approach to learning and using English. Students' and teachers' attitudes refute the idea that non-native speakers aim at 'becoming' native speakers, as suggested by Davies (1991, 2003) and Medgyes (1992). These findings help describe as unreasonable the objection raised to the argument against the native speaker model that non-native learners themselves want to be native speakers (see Cook, 1999). Significantly, students have also described their English as a mixture of AmE and BrE reshaped by the influences of their mother tongue.

Furthermore, most subjects believed that native speakers should be more tolerant toward non-native speakers' English. Campbell et al. (1983) and Smith (1983) had already suggested that the native speaker should also be trained in the use of English in international contexts (see section 2.5).

In addition, students displayed a set of motivational factors which emphasize instrumental and international use of English. Dörnyei (1990) and Williams & Burden (1997) observed that in foreign language contexts, instrumental motivation acquires a special importance. Moreover, Littlewood (1984) pointed out that an emphasis on instrumental orientation is expected when learning an international language in which the aim is to communicate with people who have also learnt it as a foreign language (see section 2.7.2). It is interesting to see that many years after Dörnyei's and Littlewood's studies, instrumental motivation still seems to be quite relevant in foreign language contexts. However, due to the ever increasing role of English as a tool for intercultural communication, an orientation focused on the international use of the language has acquired considerable importance in these contexts.

Finally, teachers and students did not agree on two issues: learner's goal when writing in English and native speakers' use of English. Most teachers said that the Portuguese learner should be a competent writer of English whereas students hoped to write as native speakers do, that is, being consistent in one variety and not making grammar mistakes. Also, while teachers believed that native speakers should not adapt the language when talking to non-natives, students stated that native speakers should facilitate communication. Students, therefore, seem to be more in tune with an approach to English use in international settings, in line with suggestions of Baxter (1991) that when communicating internationally, language users should adapt their way of speaking English. Furthermore, Smith (1992) also pointed out that it is quite important to maintain intelligibility using English for cross-cultural communication adding that native speakers are not more intelligible than non-native speakers (see section 2.3). In an attempt to identify the features of EIL which ensure intelligibility, Jenkins (2000) proposed a phonological inventory of EIL, the 'Lingua Franca Core', and Prodromou (2003) analysed native and non-native speakers' use of idioms (see section 2.4). The

intelligibility of EIL depends on the identification of those features of native and non-native varieties/accents which are commonly understood in the global context.

8.2.3. The theory and practice of EIL

The third research question sought to analyze the findings of the two previous sets of questions together, hoping to arrive at a comprehensive picture of EIL in Portugal:

3. Do the representations of EIL in *policies* and *materials* and in the students' and teachers' *minds* and *practices* converge or diverge?

The analysis of students' and teachers' attitudes toward the linguistic and cultural dimensions of EIL shows that subjects display an overall ethnocentric and linguacentred approach to the language. Most importantly, they clearly emphasized the relevance of BrE and British culture in ELT although they also called attention to the secondary role and influence of AmE and American culture when learning English today. In view of this, subjects referred to the importance of learning about the differences between AmE and BrE and the possibility of mixing both varieties when using English.

These findings seem to corroborate the data from the analysis of classroom materials. The materials examined put emphasis primarily on BrE and British culture and secondarily on AmE and American culture. However, it is important to note that subjects had a more positive attitude toward learning about British and American cultures than the features of their standard varieties. Such interest in the cultural aspects may be the consequence of the overall approach of the current syllabi and guidelines on English language learning and teaching in Portugal. The three documents analyzed made few references to the identification and use of English varieties (BrE, AmE or other native varieties). Instead, they opted to underline the intercultural relevance of English. The lack of emphasis on features of native and non-native varieties of English might indicate that there is an entrenched idea that ELT should aim at developing the learner's competence in producing and understanding Standard English (especially the British variety).

Subjects displayed a favourable attitude toward learning about native varieties and cultures (other than American and British) and international cultural aspects and linguistic features of English. However, rather than reporting actual experience in dealing with these issues (in fact, subjects admitted having little knowledge of and not being familiar with other varieties and cultures), students and teachers demonstrated some openness to incorporate them into their English lessons. As far as the English syllabi and classroom materials are concerned, although the 2002 Secondary School Reform calls attention to the relevance of studying about English-speaking cultures, the materials examined have not yet assimilated this issue into the content of their lessons. It would be worthwhile if the forthcoming pedagogic materials took into consideration the attitudes of students and teachers and included references to native cultures and varieties.

Finally, it is interesting to comment on the subjects' and the documents' approach to non-native (ESL and EFL) cultures and varieties. Although the most recent ELT guidelines proposed by the Ministry of Education (the 2001 Curriculum and the 2002 Secondary School Reform) emphasize the intercultural role of English, no relevance is given to non-native countries and the English they use. Moreover, the classroom materials analyzed make very few references to ESL or EFL cultures. Accordingly, subjects believe it is not essential to learn about non-native cultures and varieties.

All in all, the approach to English as an international language in Portugal today is based primarily on a 'dual-nation-centred' view – US and UK – and secondarily on a perspective which incorporates English-speaking countries. However, some attitudes displayed by the subjects in this study such as the roles of native and non-native speakers/teachers, ownership of English, learner's goal in using the language and perception of the English they use, seem to reinforce the need to approach English as an international language. In other words, the attitudes of language users can be placed along a continuum, sometimes closer to an ethnocentric and linguacentric approach to English, other times assimilating the international use of the language.

However, in order to fully grasp the concept of EIL and assimilate it into the learning and teaching of the language in Portugal today, more emphasis should be given to native and non-native cultures and varieties. The concept of English as an international

language includes all communities which use it for intranational and international purposes.

8.3. Contributions and implications

Most importantly, this study seeks to empower the Expanding Circle in the debate of the role of English in the 21st century. So far, critical examinations of ELT have focused mainly on countries of the Outer Circle (see section 2.6; Pennycook, 1994 and 1998; Canagarajah, 1999; Brutt-Griffler, 2002). Little has been done to examine how language users in the Expanding Circle have been coping with the increasing influence of the English language in their daily lives. Crystal (1997) acknowledges the importance of English in these communities when he states that “there is much more use of English nowadays in some countries of the Expanding Circle, where it is ‘only’ a foreign language (as in Scandinavia and The Netherlands), than in some of the Outer Circle where it has traditionally held a special place” (56). Crystal adds that the role of the Expanding Circle “in any account of the global English picture is likely to increase dramatically in the twenty-first century, eventually exceeding the significance currently attached to the Outer Circle countries” (61).

In view of this, this research hopes to contribute to the ELT field by helping set approaches of investigation into the role of English as an international language suggesting relevant research areas and methodologies. Due to the lack of methodological innovation in this field, perhaps the most relevant contribution of this research is in the methodology used to investigate EIL in a country of the Expanding Circle.

The significance of the methodology lies first in the range and diversity of instruments used. Firstly, on the examination of both the theory (policies and pedagogic materials) and the practice (students’ and teachers’ attitudes) of EIL in the educational context. Secondly, on the use of an extensive range of methods of collecting and analysing qualitative and quantitative data: attitudes questionnaires, presentation of native and non-native English varieties/accents through audio and video cassettes, interviews, ELT documents and syllabi and classroom materials (see sections 3.6, 3.7 and 3.8). Together,

these combine to provide a thorough investigation into the learning and teaching of English.

Secondly, it is worth noting the emphasis on the importance of assessing English users' (students and teachers) attitudes toward the language (see section 2.8). As proposed by Medgyes (1999), EIL should be regarded as a blend of beliefs and attitudes toward rules and norms (see section 2.4). Moreover, early in the 1980s, Smith (1983) called attention to a widespread shift in attitudes toward the English language and more recently, Modiano (1999b) referred to the need to challenge an ethnocentric and linguacentric attitude toward ELT. From the early studies on native speakers' attitudes toward language to the more recent studies on non-native speakers' attitudes toward native and non-native varieties/accents (e.g. see Matsuura et al., 1994; Chiba et al., 1995; Forde, 1995; El-Dash & Busnardo, 2001), there has been no study which attempted to examine the language user's attitudes toward the several issues which characterize EIL.

Thirdly, the innovativeness of the methodology used in the study also lies in the approach to the diverse features of EIL through the examination of several key issues which help provide a more complete picture of global English such as exposure to/acceptability of native and non-native varieties/accents, mixing standards (AmE and BrE), awareness of native and non-native cultures, understanding of own culture, native target/language competence goal in learning, the cross-cultural role of English, ownership of English, roles of native and non-native speakers, and motivation to learn English (see section 3.3). However, unlike most studies which have examined the language user's attitudes toward the features of EIL separately (e.g. see Matsuura et al., 1994 and Chiba et al., 1995 for an examination of students' attitudes toward native and non-native varieties of English; Virtanen & Lindgrén, 1998 for students' perception about and use of BrE and AmE; Smith, 1992 for students' ability to guess the origin of native and non-native speakers; Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 2001 for an analysis of the nativeness paradigm in four speakers of international English; Shaw, 1983 for students' choice of which variety of English to learn; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2002 for students' perceptions of native and non-native speaker teachers of English; Bowers, 1999 for students' choice of cultural topics in EFL classes), this study analysed these features side by side, aiming to find correlations among them.

Finally, the findings in this study help justify a novel approach to EIL in ELT which takes into account the following aspects (see Chapter 3 for a comprehensive analysis and explanation of the importance of these aspects in building a framework of EIL):

- a balanced presentation of linguistic and cultural aspects of English
- introduction of the differences between AmE and BrE
- presentation of native and non-native varieties and cultures
- development of international topics
- understanding the local culture
- acknowledgement of native and non-native speakers' use of English
- recognition of the value of native and non-native teachers
- granting ownership of English to native and non-native speakers
- working on learner's instrumental and international use motivation to learn English

It is also hoped that this study might make a significant contribution to the ELT debate in the European context (see Berns, 1995; Loonen, 1996; McArthur, 2003). Janssen (1999) observes that approaches to teaching English as a tool for international communication should consider the specific problems in multilingual communities such as the European Union (EU). From critical approaches to the penetration of the English language in Europe (see Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas, 1996; Phillipson, 2003) to descriptive studies of the linguistic and pragmatic features of Euro-English (see Alexander, 1999; Jenkins et al., 2001), learning and teaching English in Europe has become an intricate task, needing great resourcefulness.

Due to the multilingualism and multiculturalism found in the EU, the guidelines set by the Council of Europe on foreign language education policies to be adopted by the twenty-five member-states have to refer to several foreign languages learned in the EU. Consequently, the investigations into English language teaching in the individual countries may play a crucial role in the exchange of ideas and development of theories and practices of English language learning in Europe. Moreover, as pointed out by Phillipson (2003), research into European language policy should focus on "the use and learning of English, not as a British or American language but as one for continental

European purposes. This should build on a description of English as a lingua franca, and the relevance of this for the teaching of English” (187).

However, most studies on English as a foreign language in Europe have focused mainly on the attitudes toward the language and/or its influence on the local language and culture (see sections 1.2 and 2.8.4.1). Some studies, though, have focused on attitudes toward native and non-native varieties/accents of English (e.g. see Dalton-Puffer et al., 1997). However, a thorough study which included the key principles of EIL which have been identified in this study has not yet been carried out elsewhere.

Finally, this study may make a contribution to the debate on the teaching of English in basic and secondary schools and universities/polytechnics in Portugal. The knowledge that results from recognizing students’ and teachers’ attitudes toward learning and using English and identifying the major features of the current English syllabi and pedagogic materials used in basic and secondary education may help improve the following areas:

- 1) ELT in basic and secondary education

This research calls attention to the importance of approaching English learning and teaching taking into consideration the international role of the language. Although the syllabus and the classroom materials provide essential information on the objectives, contents and pedagogical principles of the learning and teaching process, teachers are expected to adapt and improve the proposed guidelines by developing materials and activities that not only cater for their students’ motivation and purposes to learn the language but also that reflect the characteristics of English use in the individual and social contexts of the students. For example, based on the findings in Chapters 5 and 6, teachers might choose to engage their students in activities which focus on native cultures and varieties other than American and British. Moreover, some classroom activities may be centred on non-native varieties and cultures. Teachers might also need to consider their students use of English as far as mixing AmE and BrE is concerned, including more references to the differences between these two varieties.

2) Basic and secondary school teacher training programmes in universities and polytechnics

This study also hopes to facilitate teacher training programmes in universities and polytechnics by providing a detailed description of the present situation of ELT in Portugal. English teacher training programmes in universities and polytechnics are drawn up based on the linguistic and cultural perspectives of the language. The move from an emphasis on the two most influential English-speaking cultures – UK and US – to an approach that includes all cultures that use English (as seen in the analysis of the two educational reforms introduced in 2001 and 2002; see sections 4.2.2 and 4.2.3) will definitely bring consequences to the structure and objectives of teacher training programmes in higher education institutions. Rather than offering classes that aim to develop learners' skills in and knowledge of standard American and British English and American and British cultures, teacher training programmes might need to incorporate classes and activities focusing on other varieties of English and native and non-native cultures.

3) Teaching ESP in universities and polytechnics

The research findings which relate to ESP students and teachers in universities and polytechnics may help shed some light on how to incorporate elements of EIL in the contents and objectives of the language classes. Besides considering the specific elements of the course studied, including linguistic and cultural aspects of native and non-native communities might be a valuable and indispensable task in ESP classes. Activities focusing on the intercultural role of English and the linguistic and cultural problems that may arise when different cultures (native and non-native) meet can be useful classroom experiences.

4) Materials writers

It is hoped that this study may also assist materials writers not only by revealing the weaknesses and strengths of current classroom materials but also by identifying possible areas for improvement such as in the amount of references to and use of varieties of English and native and non-native cultures. Moreover, if the

forthcoming pedagogic materials are to reflect the guidelines proposed by the English syllabi for basic and secondary education, a careful examination of the students' and teachers' attitudes toward learning and using English is paramount.

5) ELT policies for basic and secondary schools

This research may offer the Ministry of Education some assistance in identifying high-priority areas in English language learning and teaching. One of the major challenges of any language policy in an educational context is that it provides the necessary conditions for successful development and implementation of the suggested guidelines. However, this can only be achieved if these policies take into consideration what goes on in the classroom and in the students' and teachers' minds. For example, some findings of this study indicate that students are motivated to learn and use English with an instrumental and international use orientation. Similarly, students and teachers have a favourable attitude towards learning about native varieties and international features of English. However, the 2001 and 2002 reforms make few references to these language aspects (see sections 4.2.2 and 4.2.3). It might be worthwhile, though, to consider devising more specific and direct recommendations on how to manage a more internationally oriented approach to the English language in basic and secondary school classes.

6) Research on ELT in Portugal

Possibly one of the weakest areas in the development of ELT in Portugal is the lack of full-scale investigation into the features of English language use among the Portuguese. Therefore, this research hopes to encourage future data-based research on English language learning and teaching in Portugal. The subjects in this study were all university based: future research should consider engaging students and teachers in basic and secondary schools. Moreover, besides focusing on classroom-based data, research should also deal with the use of English in intercultural encounters in the workplace.

8.4. Concluding remarks

This research was born out of the idea that English is the world's lingua franca. The use of the English language in international communication is widespread. An increasing number of people all over the world strive to be able to use English in different communicative contexts. In consequence, we are going through a period of changes in the ELT field as old ideas are being challenged due to the social and cultural transformations that affect the world. More than ever, identifying the language users' attitudes toward English has become imperative.

Fundamentally, this research attempts to make space for the voices of the Expanding Circle. The EIL debate has been led by researchers in the Inner and Outer Circles. However, this does not represent the reality of English use in the world today. The future of the English language does not depend only on what happens in the native countries of the Inner Circle or in the communities of the Outer Circle where English has acquired an official status.

Moreover, this study seeks to show how students and teachers see learning and using the language today and how their attitudes can influence or be influenced by ELT policies and practices not only in Portugal but in other European countries, in particular, and in the countries of the Expanding Circle, in general. The methodology used in the analysis of attitudes toward the English language should be diversified, integrating several means of data collection and focusing on the identification of central aspects related to learning and teaching the language such as native and non-native varieties and cultures, native and non-native speakers' use of English, learner's goal, ownership of English, intelligibility of English, native and non-native teachers, and motivation to learn English.

As the role of the English language in the world evolves, the facts and truth of the past become the challenges of the future. In order to draw an accurate and reliable picture of the international penetration of English, we need to deepen our understanding of the minds and practices of those who learn and use English in a foreign context. This study offers a contribution to ongoing research, in the hope that it may stimulate debate and provide a possible model for future work.

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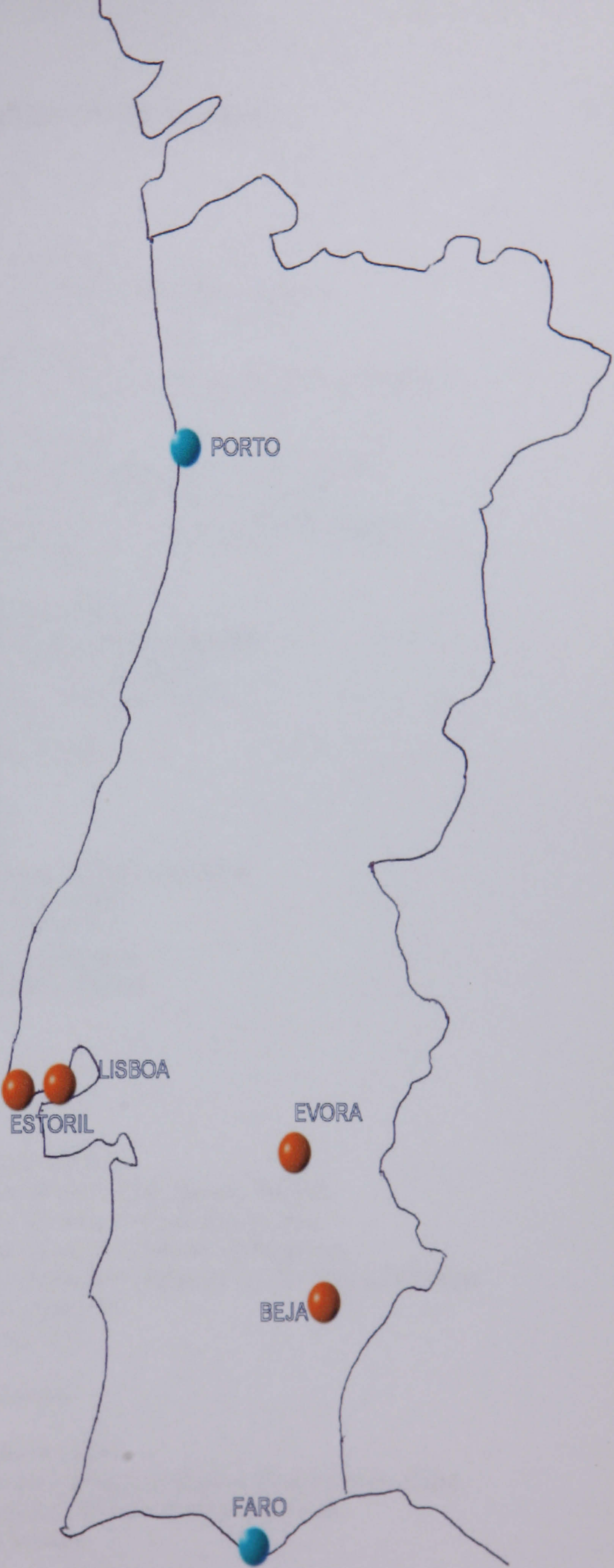
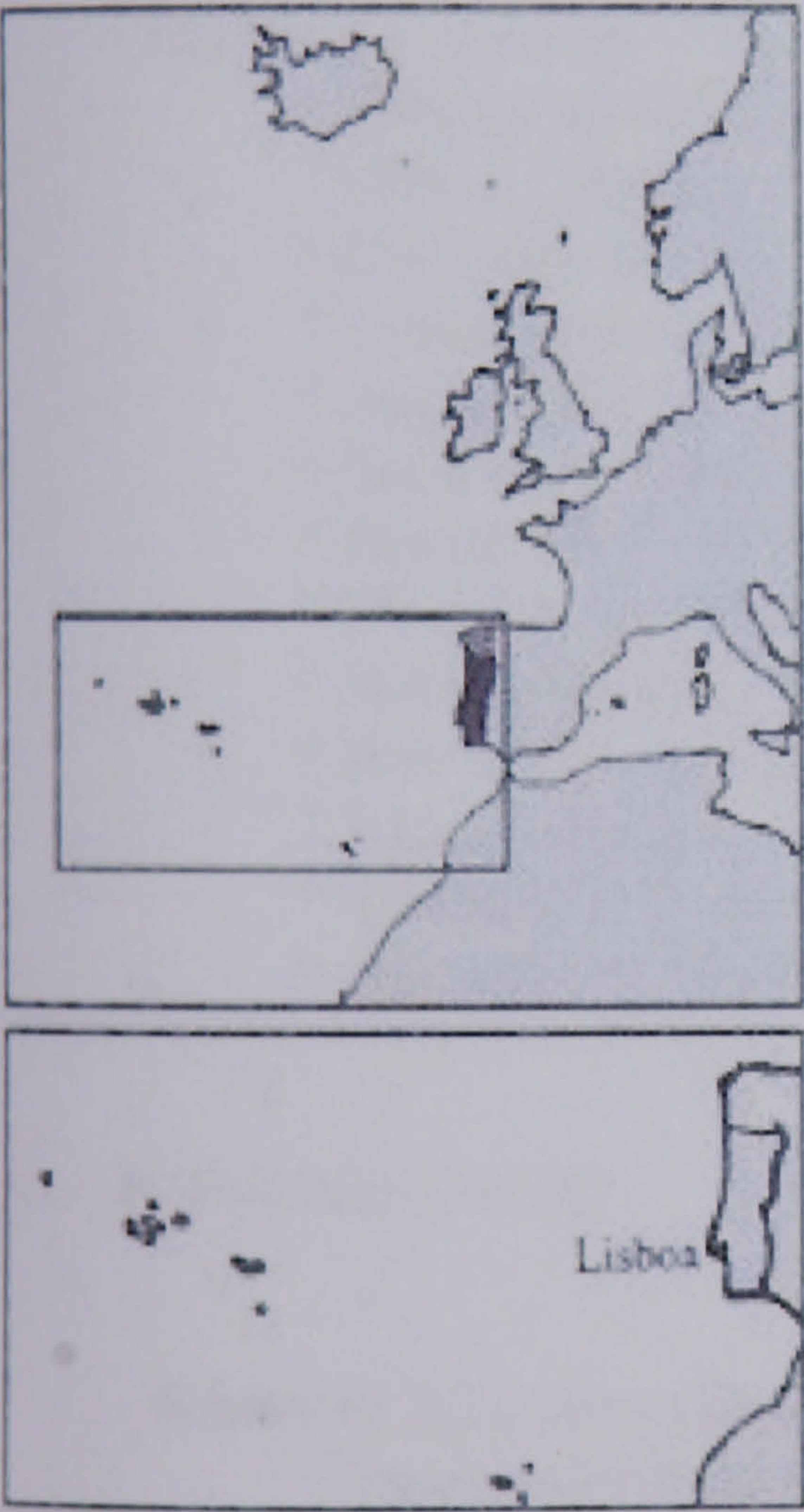
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Appendices

**Appendix 3.1: Location of
subjects' educational institutions
– orange circles
(Map of Portugal)**



Appendix 3.2: Subjects' affiliation and courses studied/taught

A. Students (N=247):

- School of Education (SE): codes SE001 to SE032
 - * Teachers in Primary Education: Branch of Portuguese/English
- University of Lisbon (UL): codes UL001 to UL057
 - * Modern Languages and Literatures: Branch of Educational Qualification
- School of Tourism (ST): codes ST001 to ST074
 - * Leisure and Tourism Entertainment Management: ST001 to ST010
 - * Tourism Information: National Tour Guides: ST011 to ST030
 - * Tourism Information: National Tourism Promoters: ST031 to ST044
 - * Hotel Management: ST045 to ST074
- University of Evora (UE): codes UE001 to UE084
 - * History: Branch of Cultural Heritage: UE001 to UE005
 - * History: Branch of Archeology: UE006 to UE007
 - * Computer Sciences (Engineering): UE008 to UE014
 - * Teaching of Mathematics: UE015
 - * Applied Mathematics: UE016 to UE018
 - * Sociology: UE019 to UE029
 - * Psychology: UE 030 to UE046
 - * Philosophy: UE047 to UE050
 - * Human Physical Activity Sciences : UE051 to UE059
 - * Environmental Sciences: UE060 to UE072
 - * Veterinary Medicine/Science: UE073
 - * Zootechnic Engineering: UE074 to UE079
 - * Agricultural Engineering: UE080 to UE084

B. Teachers (N=26)

- School of Education (SE): codes SE01 to SE03
 - * Teachers in Primary Education: Branch of Portuguese/English
 - * Teachers in Primary Education: Branch of Musical Education
 - * Teachers in Primary Education: Branch of Arts and Technology
 - * Teachers in Primary Education: Branch of Mathematics and Natural Sciences
 - * Teachers in Primary Education (Age 6-9)
 - * Early Childhood Education (Age 1-5)
 - * Leisure Studies
 - * Sports, Physical Activity and Leisure
- University of Lisbon (UL): codes UL01 to UL10
 - * Modern Languages and Literatures: Branch of English Studies/English and Spanish Studies/English and French Studies/English and German Studies/English and Portuguese Studies

- * Modern Languages and Literatures: Branch of Educational Qualification (Post-graduate studies, 5th and 6th years)
- * Translation
- * Communication and Culture
- * Show Business
- * African Studies
- * European Studies

- School of Tourism (ST): codes ST01 to ST06
 - * Leisure and Tourism Entertainment Management
 - * Tourism Information: National Tour Guides
 - * Tourism Information: National Tourism Promoters
 - * Hotel Management
 - * Tour Operating Management
 - * Food Production and Restaurant Operation

- University of Evora (UE): codes UE01 to UE07
 - * History: Branch of Cultural Heritage
 - * History: Branch of Archeology
 - * Computer Sciences (Engineering)
 - * Teaching of Mathematics
 - * Applied Mathematics
 - * Sociology
 - * Psychology
 - * Philosophy
 - * Human Physical Activity Sciences
 - * Environmental Sciences
 - * Veterinary Medicine
 - * Zootechnic (Animal Science) Engineering
 - * Agricultural Engineering
 - * Portuguese/English (Teaching)
 - * Business Management
 - * Translation
 - * History (Teaching)
 - * Chemistry
 - * Biochemistry
 - * Chemical and Industrial Processes Engineering
 - * Industrial Production and Energy Engineering

Appendix 3.3: Students' questionnaire

Section I

A major Portuguese TV station is producing a programme on the role of the English language in the twenty-first century and is looking for a narrator. You will hear five people from different countries who have applied for the job. All of them will read the following text:

As a language changes, it may well change in different ways in different places. No one who speaks a particular language can remain in close contact with all the other speakers of that language. Social and geographical barriers to communication, as well as sheer distance, mean that the change that starts among speakers in one particular locality will probably spread only to other areas with which these speakers are in close contact. This is what has happened over the centuries in the case of the languages we now call English and German. Two thousand years ago, the Germanic peoples living in what is now for the most part Germany, could understand one another perfectly well. However, when many of them migrated to England, they did not remain in close contact with those who stayed behind. The result, to simplify somewhat, was that different linguistic changes took place in the two areas independently so that today English and German, while clearly related languages, are not mutually intelligible.

1. Please listen to their readings and decide how *friendly*, *clear*, *polished*, etc their **accent** sounds. For example, if you think it sounds *friendly*, put a circle around number 1, *unfriendly* number 5, neither *friendly* nor *unfriendly* number 3 and so on. For example,

(1) FRIENDLY	1	2	3	4	5	UNFRIENDLY
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Candidate A:

(1) FRIENDLY	1	2	3	4	5	UNFRIENDLY
(2) CLEAR	1	2	3	4	5	UNCLEAR
(3) POLISHED	1	2	3	4	5	ROUGH
(4) NO ACCENT	1	2	3	4	5	STRONG ACCENT
(5) NOT FUNNY	1	2	3	4	5	FUNNY

Candidate B:

(1) FRIENDLY	1	2	3	4	5	UNFRIENDLY
(2) CLEAR	1	2	3	4	5	UNCLEAR
(3) POLISHED	1	2	3	4	5	ROUGH
(4) NO ACCENT	1	2	3	4	5	STRONG ACCENT
(5) NOT FUNNY	1	2	3	4	5	FUNNY

Candidate C:

(1) FRIENDLY	1	2	3	4	5	UNFRIENDLY
(2) CLEAR	1	2	3	4	5	UNCLEAR
(3) POLISHED	1	2	3	4	5	ROUGH
(4) NO ACCENT	1	2	3	4	5	STRONG ACCENT
(5) NOT FUNNY	1	2	3	4	5	FUNNY

Candidate D:

(1) FRIENDLY	1	2	3	4	5	UNFRIENDLY
(2) CLEAR	1	2	3	4	5	UNCLEAR
(3) POLISHED	1	2	3	4	5	ROUGH
(4) NO ACCENT	1	2	3	4	5	STRONG ACCENT
(5) NOT FUNNY	1	2	3	4	5	FUNNY

Candidate E:

(1) FRIENDLY	1	2	3	4	5	UNFRIENDLY
(2) CLEAR	1	2	3	4	5	UNCLEAR
(3) POLISHED	1	2	3	4	5	ROUGH
(4) NO ACCENT	1	2	3	4	5	STRONG ACCENT
(5) NOT FUNNY	1	2	3	4	5	FUNNY

2. Put the candidates in order of who you most liked the sound of, by putting their letters into the boxes below:

1 st	2 nd	3 rd	4 th	5 th

3. Now put the candidates in order of who you yourself would most want to sound like, by putting their letters into the boxes below:

1 st	2 nd	3 rd	4 th	5 th

4. Finally, try to guess the countries the candidates come from:

Candidate	Country of origin
A	
B	
C	
D	
E	

Section II

1. School: _____

2. Course: _____

3. How long have you been studying English? Please tick the appropriate box.

a	1 to 3 years	
b	4 to 6 years	
c	7 to 9 years	
d	10 to 12 years	
e	More than 12 years	

4. Have you ever spent time outside Portugal (except on holidays)?

Yes No

If you answered “yes”, complete the following grid:

	Was it an English-speaking country? (circle your answer)		Where?	For how long?
<i>a</i>	Yes	No		
<i>b</i>	Yes	No		
<i>c</i>	Yes	No		
<i>d</i>	Yes	No		

Section III

1. What are your reasons for studying English?
Please show how important the following reasons are. Tick a box for each one.

- 1 = very important
- 2 = important
- 3 = neither important nor unimportant
- 4 = unimportant
- 5 = very unimportant

		1	2	3	4	5
<i>a</i>	To write professional reports and letters					
<i>b</i>	To get a job in an English-speaking country					
<i>c</i>	To talk to people all over the world					
<i>d</i>	To talk to native speakers in English-speaking countries					
<i>e</i>	To read professional textbooks, reports and articles					
<i>f</i>	To read books and magazines for pleasure					
<i>g</i>	To talk to foreigners in Portugal					
<i>h</i>	To watch movies					
<i>i</i>	To study in an English-speaking country					
<i>j</i>	To watch TV					
<i>k</i>	To talk to English-speaking people in work situations					
<i>l</i>	To write messages in chat rooms in the internet					
<i>m</i>	To listen to music					
<i>n</i>	To make a good impression on other people					
<i>o</i>	Because I like the countries where English is spoken					
<i>p</i>	To talk to non-native speakers of English in work situations					
<i>q</i>	Because a knowledge of another language will make me a better person					
<i>r</i>	To participate in video conferences in the internet					
<i>s</i>	Because it will help me think and behave as native speakers do					
<i>t</i>	To read internet sites					
<i>u</i>	Because I like the people who are native speakers					
<i>v</i>	To write personal letters and e-mails					

2. Which of the two statements in each pair comes closest to your views of English? **Please choose one only in each pair.**

a.

A language which belongs to its native speakers	
A language which belongs to whoever uses it	

b.

The language spoken in the UK, US, Australia, Canada, New Zealand,...	
A global language for international communication	

3. What is your goal in **speaking** English? **Please choose one only.**

<i>a</i>	To speak like the educated British	
<i>b</i>	To speak like the educated American	
<i>c</i>	To speak like the educated British or American	
<i>d</i>	To speak like other native speakers (e.g. Australians, Canadians,...)	
<i>e</i>	To be a competent speaker, that is, it's OK to have a Portuguese accent and make some grammatical mistakes as long as I'm understood	
<i>f</i>	To be a competent speaker making no grammatical mistakes although having a Portuguese accent	
<i>g</i>	Other:	

4. What is your goal in **writing** in English? **Please choose one only.**

<i>a</i>	To write like the educated British	
<i>b</i>	To write like the educated American	
<i>c</i>	To write like the educated British or American	
<i>d</i>	To write like other native speakers (e.g. Australians, Canadians,...)	
<i>e</i>	To be a competent writer, that is, it's OK to make some grammatical mistakes as long as I'm understood	
<i>f</i>	Other:	

5. What do you think is the best way to learn English? **Please choose one only.**

<i>a</i>	Always with a native teacher	
<i>b</i>	Always with a nonnative teacher	
<i>c</i>	It doesn't matter if it's a native or non-native teacher	
<i>d</i>	With native and nonnative teachers (it depends on the teaching level/stage)	

Why?

6. When learning English, which cultural aspects are important to study?
Please show how important the following aspects are. Tick a box for each one.

- 1 = very important
- 2 = important
- 3 = neither important nor unimportant
- 4 = unimportant
- 5 = very unimportant

		1	2	3	4	5
a	British culture					
b	American culture					
c	Other English-speaking cultures (Canada, South Africa, Australia,...)					
d	Other cultures which use English (Nigeria, India, Hong Kong,...)					
e	Other cultures (France, Japan, Russia...)					
f	International cultural aspects (social, economic, scientific and technological) not specific to any country					
g	Portuguese culture					

7. In your opinion, how is the English you use? Please choose one only.

a	BrE/closer to BrE	
b	AmE/closer to AmE	
c	Another variety/closer to another variety (Which one? _____)	
d	It has its own characteristics and is a mixture of BrE and AmE with influence of the Portuguese language	
e	Other:	

8. In your opinion, is it important to be consistent in one variety or is there no problem in mixing varieties? Why?

9. Are you familiar with some varieties of English? You can choose more than one.

a	I'm familiar with BrE	
b	I'm familiar with AmE	
c	I'm familiar with other native varieties (AustE, CanE, SAE,...)	
d	I'm familiar with other varieties (IndE, NigE....)	
e	I'm familiar with some foreign English accents (German, Spanish, French, Chinese,...)	
f	Other:	

10. What do you feel about learning English?
Please show how much you agree or disagree with the following statements. Tick a box for each statement.

- 1 = strongly agree
- 2 = agree
- 3 = neither agree nor disagree
- 4 = disagree
- 5 = strongly disagree

		1	2	3	4	5
a	It's important to learn about the English spoken by non-native speakers					
b	It's important to learn about the cultural patterns of English speaking as well as non-English speaking peoples					
c	It's important to learn about the features of English which can be understood internationally, not just in one or two countries					
d	It's important to know that different cultures use English differently					
e	It's important to know the linguistic variation and varieties of many types: national, regional, social, functional, international.					
f	It's important to learn the differences between AmE and BrE and where they are used					
g	It's important to know other varieties besides AmE and BrE					

11. Which of the two statements in each pair comes closest to your views about native speakers of English? Please choose one only in each pair.

- a.
- | | |
|--|--|
| Native speakers should use English with nonnatives as if they were communicating with other native speakers | |
| Native speakers should use English with nonnatives in a way to make it easy for non-native speakers to understand them, that is, without a heavy accent or using slang | |
- b.
- | | |
|--|--|
| Native speakers should expect non-native speakers to sound or act like native speakers to be effective English users | |
| Native speakers should be more tolerant towards non-native speakers' English | |

Appendix 3.4: Teachers’ questionnaire

Section I

1. School: _____

2. Are you a native speaker of English?

Yes (country of origin: _____)

No

3. What’s your experience in teaching English *in Portugal*? Please tick the box(es) that applies(y) to you.

<i>a</i>	Polytechnic English Teacher Training courses	
<i>b</i>	Polytechnic ESP courses	
<i>c</i>	University English Teacher Training courses	
<i>d</i>	University ESP courses	
<i>e</i>	Other:	

4. What degree programs do you teach this year (eg. Economics, Engineering, etc.)?

5. How long have you been teaching English? Please tick the appropriate box.

<i>a</i>	1 to 5 years	
<i>b</i>	6 to 10 years	
<i>c</i>	11 to 15 years	
<i>d</i>	16 to 20 years	
<i>e</i>	More than 20 years	

6. Have you ever spent time outside Portugal (except on holidays)?

Yes No

If you answered “yes”, complete the following grid:

	Was it an English-speaking country? (circle your answer)		Where?	For how long?
<i>a</i>	Yes	No		
<i>b</i>	Yes	No		
<i>c</i>	Yes	No		
<i>d</i>	Yes	No		

Section II

1. In your daily life, what do you need English for?
Please show how important the following reasons are. Tick a box for each one.

- 1 = very important
- 2 = important
- 3 = neither important nor unimportant
- 4 = unimportant
- 5 = very unimportant

		1	2	3	4	5
a	To write professional reports and letters					
b	To talk to people all over the world					
c	To talk to people in English-speaking countries					
d	To read professional textbooks, reports and articles					
e	To read books and magazines for pleasure					
f	To talk to foreigners in Portugal					
g	To watch movies					
h	To watch TV					
i	To talk to English-speaking people in work situations					
j	To write messages in chat rooms in the internet					
k	To listen to music					
l	To make a good impression on other people					
m	To talk to non-native speakers of English in work situations					
n	To participate in video conferences in the internet					
o	To read internet sites					
p	To write personal letters and e-mails					
q	Other:					
r	Other:					

2. Which of the two statements in each pair comes closest to your views of English? Please choose one only in each pair.

- a.

A language which belongs to its native speakers	
A language which belongs to whoever uses it	
- b.

The language spoken in the UK, US, Australia, Canada, New Zealand,...	
A global language for international communication	

3. In your opinion, how is the English you use? Please choose one only.

a	BrE/closer to BrE	
b	AmE/closer to AmE	
c	Another variety/closer to another variety (Which one? _____)	
d	It has its own characteristics and is a mixture of BrE and AmE with influence of the Portuguese language	
e	Other:	

4. In your opinion, should non-native speakers be consistent in only one variety or is there no problem in mixing varieties? Why?

5. What should a Portuguese learner’s goal in **speaking** English be? **Please choose one only.**

<i>a</i>	To speak like the educated British	
<i>b</i>	To speak like the educated American	
<i>c</i>	To speak like the educated British or American	
<i>d</i>	To speak like other native speakers (e.g. Australians, Canadians,...)	
<i>e</i>	To be a competent speaker, that is, it’s OK to have a Portuguese accent and make some grammatical mistakes as long as he/she is understood	
<i>f</i>	To be a competent speaker making no grammatical mistakes but with a Portuguese accent	
<i>g</i>	Other:	

Would your expectations be different if you had ESP students or teacher trainees? **Explain.**

6. What should a Portuguese learner’s goal in **writing** English be? **Please choose one only.**

<i>a</i>	To write like the educated British	
<i>b</i>	To write like the educated American	
<i>c</i>	To write like the educated British or American	
<i>d</i>	To write like other native speakers (e.g. Australians, Canadians,...)	
<i>e</i>	To be a competent writer, that is, it’s OK to make some grammatical mistakes as long as he/she is understood	
<i>f</i>	Other:	

Would your expectations be different if you had ESP students or teacher trainees? **Explain.**

7. What do you think is the best way for a non-native speaker in Portugal to learn English?
Please choose one only.

<i>a</i>	Always with a native teacher	
<i>b</i>	Always with a nonnative teacher	
<i>c</i>	It doesn't matter if it's a native or non-native teacher	
<i>d</i>	With native and nonnative teachers (it depends on the teaching level/stage)	

Why?

8. When teaching English as a foreign language in Portugal, which cultural aspects are important to study?

Please show how important the following aspects are. Tick a box for each one.

- 1 = very important
- 2 = important
- 3 = neither important nor unimportant
- 4 = unimportant
- 5 = very unimportant

		1	2	3	4	5
<i>a</i>	British culture					
<i>b</i>	American culture					
<i>c</i>	Other English-speaking cultures (Canada, South Africa, Australia,...)					
<i>d</i>	Other cultures which use English (Nigeria, India, Hong Kong,...)					
<i>e</i>	Other cultures (France, Japan, Russia...)					
<i>f</i>	International cultural aspects (social, economic, scientific and technological) not specific to any country					
<i>g</i>	Portuguese culture					

Do you have any further comments about your answers?

9. Do you think that studying cultural aspects depends on the kind of students you have, e.g. ESP students or teacher trainees? **Explain.**

10. Are you familiar with some varieties of English? You can choose more than one.

a	I'm familiar with BrE	
b	I'm familiar with AmE	
c	I'm familiar with other native varieties (AustE, CanE, SAE,...)	
d	I'm familiar with other varieties (IndE, NigE,...)	
e	I'm familiar with some foreign English accents (German, Spanish, French, Chinese,...)	
f	Other:	

11. What do you feel about non-native speakers learning English?
Please show how much you agree or disagree with the following statements. Tick a box for each statement.

- 1 = strongly agree
- 2 = agree
- 3 = neither agree nor disagree
- 4 = disagree
- 5 = strongly disagree

		1	2	3	4	5
a	It's important to learn about the English spoken by non-native speakers					
b	It's important to learn about the cultural patterns of English speaking as well as non-English speaking peoples					
c	It's important to learn about the features of English which can be understood internationally, not just in one or two countries					
d	It's important to know that different cultures use English differently					
e	It's important to know the linguistic variation and varieties of many types: national, regional, social, functional, international.					
f	It's important to learn the differences between AmE and BrE and where they are used					
g	It's important to know other varieties besides AmE and BrE					

Do you have any further comments about your answers?

12. Which of the two statements in each pair comes closest to your views about native speakers of English? Please choose one only in each pair.

- a.

Native speakers should use English with nonnatives as if they were communicating with other native speakers

Native speakers should use English with nonnatives in a way to make it easy for non-native speakers to understand them, that is, without a heavy accent or using slang
- b.

Native speakers should expect non-native speakers to sound or act like native speakers to be effective English users

Native speakers should be more tolerant towards non-native speakers' English

Appendix 3.5: Students' interview: topics of questions

Using English

- goals in *speaking* English (NS target – British, American, others x competence/fluency)
 - * since when these goals exist
 - * dealing with own accent
- goals in *writing* English (NS target – British, American, others x competence/fluency)
 - * since when these goals exist
 - * dealing with mistakes
- maintaining identity (e.g. through accent) x attempt to sound like NSs
- perception of own English (AmE, BrE, mixture, PortugueseEng)
- consistency in one variety (spoken and written)
- who they use English with now/might use in the future (NS and NNS)
- use of English when travelling abroad (to N and NN countries as well)

Learning English

- motivation towards learning English (instrumental, integrative, assimilative, international use, personal satisfaction)
- NTs x NNTs
- learning culture (N, NN – ESL and EFL, global issues, Portuguese)
- importance of living/spending time in a N (or NN) country

Varieties of English

- knowledge (receptive and productive) of:
 - * BrE/AmE
 - * other varieties (N, NN)
 - * English used by NNS
- importance of learning ENL, ESL and EFL varieties (accent, lexicon, syntax...)

NSs x NNSs

- ownership of language: NSs x language users (national x international scope of English)
- role of NSs: accommodate language or not?
- intelligibility: Is it easier to understand NSs than NNSs? Is a NS the standard for intelligibility?

Influences on their attitudes to EIL

- English classes dealing with:
 - * AmE/BrE
 - * other varieties (ENL, ESL, EFL)
 - * native cultures
 - * non-native cultures (ESL and EFL)
- English textbooks dealing with:
 - * AmE/BrE
 - * other varieties (ENL, ESL, EFL)
 - * native cultures
 - * non-native cultures (ESL and EFL)
- English teachers' attitudes and opinions about:
 - * AmE/BrE
 - * other varieties (ENL, ESL, EFL)
 - * native cultures
 - * non-native cultures (ESL and EFL)

Appendix 3.6: Teachers’ interview: topics of questions

Portuguese students’ use of English

- goals in *speaking* English: NS target (British, American, others) x competence/fluency (pronunciation, vocabulary and syntax) – Teacher Trainees x ESP students
 - * dealing with accents
- goals in *writing* English: NS target (British, American, others) x competence/fluency (vocabulary and syntax) – Teacher Trainees x ESP students
 - * dealing with mistakes
- maintaining identity (e.g. through accent) x attempt to sound like NSs
- consistency in one variety (spoken and written)
- importance of living/spending time in a N (or NN) country

Teaching English

- teaching ENL, ESL and EFL varieties (pronunciation, lexicon, syntax...)
- NTs x NNTs
- teaching culture (N, NN – ESL and EFL, global issues, Portuguese): Teacher Training x ESP courses
- (**For Teacher Trainers**) knowledge of national ELT policies and curricula for Primary/Secondary Education

NSs x NNSs

- ownership of language: NSs x language users (national x international scope of English)
- role of NSs: accommodate language or not?
- intelligibility: NS/NNS and NNS/NNS interactions

Attitudes to EIL

- (**For NNTs**) remembering their English classes/textbooks/teachers’ attitudes and opinions about:

(For NTs) remembering their educational background (esp. teacher training courses, when applied) and references to:

- * AmE/BrE
- * other varieties (ENL, ESL, EFL)
- * native cultures
- * non-native cultures (ESL and EFL)

- compare their attitudes to the English language now and when they started their career

Educational/professional background

- BA, MA, PhD
- teaching experience

Appendix 3.7: Interview sample (excerpt of transcription)

Interviewee: Teacher 8

Date: June 24, 2003

Key:

I: interviewer

T8: interviewee

I: (name of teacher), is it possible to think of one major goal that you think that your students of English should have in using spoken English, what is it that you expect them to achieve, to be able to do with spoken English.

T8: Maybe to transmit something meaningful that I can understand, that is coherent and that means something. I think this is the principal thing.

I: Right. How do you distinguish those two major issues in terms of this goal: competence, fluency and accuracy? Do you expect them to be accurate in terms of grammar or accent, whatever.

T8: No, I expect them to be... They can make grammar mistakes just as long as I can understand what they are trying to say although it depends on who I'm speaking to. If I'm speaking to a professional of the language, a fellow teacher of English, a translator, a simultaneous or an interpreter, I expect them to have a reasonable degree of competence where the errors are not irritating, they are not sort of priority one errors. But for the rest of the people, even my colleagues here, teaching literature or linguistics, I don't expect them to be correct, but what I do expect is that I don't have to keep on saying "Excuse me, can you say that again because I didn't understand." And that's something... That's the major thing. It's more or less... A competent speaker for me is the one that you understand at first hearing, that you don't need to keep on asking for reformulations or clarifications because of poor composition, poor syntax.

I: So it's ok to have an accent, I mean, based on influence of your first language, in this case [Portuguese accent or]...

T8: [Oh yes, yes. I think] one should have an accent, it's a mark of identification.

I: Oh, that's one of the things I was gonna ask you. Do you think that students or teachers might relate the maintenance of this foreign accent as an identity marker of, you know, "This is who I am"?

T8: Yes, and I think what they're doing at the moment is negative because... I'll give you an instance. We were looking at a film in which some Spanish speakers were speaking, the woman had a perfect British accent, you couldn't tell if she was Spanish, and they had a young Portuguese teacher whose English was excellent but she had a Portuguese accent and all the trainees in the class started (tutoring) and started laughing. And I think it was with you, I'm not sure. I was amazed because [I thought the accent]

I: [Yeah, they started laughing]

T8: Yeah, they started laughing. I thought that was a bit shocking because she spoke well, she did her job well but they all identified it and they started laughing as if to put her down. They weren't laughing with her, they were laughing at her and I think that we need, we as teachers need to give some more, we need to build up pride in the way that is spoken.

I: Right, rather than have our students attempt to sound like native speakers.

T8: Yeah, like parrots maybe, because it doesn't... they're not native speakers and why shouldn't one speak with an accent, I mean, after all, 007 did. (*laughs*)

I: We talked about spoken English. Would you say your goal, your objective as an English teacher is the same when it comes to written English or somehow different? What do you expect your students to do?

T8: It's a little different in written because anything written is evidence against you, it's a written record so it can be used as evidence against you. So perhaps in a written form of English, because there's more time to write, because there's time to think and to plan ahead, perhaps one as a teacher one would expect to have a slightly perhaps a more, not correct, but perhaps more careful way of formulating sentences in English, which doesn't mean to say that... it depends on the irritability of the error, if the error is irritating or not.

I: What do you think about varieties, basically the two major varieties, American English and British English, when it comes to learning English in Portugal? Our students of English here, do you think they should privilege one variety over the other or it's for a Portuguese learner to use both varieties, to have American English and British English characteristics?

T8: Well I think they do. Yeah, I hope so. What is British English now? Every time you go to Britain you hear more and more Americanisms. Before you called a taxi, now you call a cab. Before you used to telephone somebody, now you give him a call. I mean, you know, some Americanisms are penetrating... I don't know where one system starts and the other one finishes. I know where American starts and finishes. It starts and finishes by controlling everything but British English, you know, you can't even vomit anymore, you gotta throw up (*laughs*). When I say I speak British English, ok, you spell British English maybe, "colour" with a "u" [], you pronounce "gray" and spell it with an "e". But these are minor things.

I: These are minor. You don't punish your students who write, who spell c-o-l-o-u-r and then later on, theater like "er", I mean, mixing varieties? [How do you see that?]

T8: [I don't, I don't...] I tell them not to, if they can. I say "Choose one way or the other. Any way is good but tend to stick to one system of spelling." But again it depends on the level of the learner. If the learner is battling with other things, I mean, it's a detail, I would prefer that they get the meaning across, ok, we come to the spelling a bit later and the varieties of it. If I had to choose I would say "Spell American" simply because of computer and also cinema and music and everything else, so, you know.

I: Do you think it's important for a learner of English to spend some time or live in a native country?

T8: I think it's important... again, it depends on the level. If they want to become future teachers maybe it's useful [] live a year in Australia or, you know, India (*laughs*) Why not? My country is Zambia, see how they speak English there! So that's could be useful. The Portuguese seem to have a very good talent for picking up languages so we've got fantastic speakers who've never been outside Portugal and they manage. But they've done it because they have talent, they worked hard at it but they could be helped by [] just to go abroad for a while. [It could be useful], it could be useful.

I: [It might help]. How about spending some time in a non-English speaking country, in terms of developing English skills. Do you see that-

T8: I do [and I]

I: [as] helpful to...

T8: I push it, I push for it because of the Erasmus Programme that we're dealing with. Because they get to speak an international sort of English, it's the common language, it's the lingua franca so they can be anywhere and mix in with other non-native speakers who are using English as a common language, they are all practising together.

I That reminds me of the issue of intelligible. Do you see... do you make a clear distinction between a native speaker and a non-native speaker as models of intelligible English, I mean, would you say that the native speaker is the intelligible speaker or...?

T8: No, I would say it's the opposite. Because in many cases the native speaker is not aware of what they're saying, they're not grading their language to be understood by a non-native speaker, they don't have that linguistic awareness that a non-native speaker has and it doesn't (mean) to say that native speakers (aren't)... speak intelligibly anyway (*laughs*)

I: Do you think that native speakers should... when talking to non-native speakers, they should somehow accommodate, adapt their language to the knowledge of the non-native speaker of English or they should use the language as if they were talking to other native speakers?

T8: No, I think this is an interactive thing, You're obviously also being polite, you're being considerate of the other. If you do try and see whether your message is being understood by the other. If you think that the message is fine, ok, then speak as you would normally. I think that we've got to... we can't only take into account linguistic paraphernalia, we gotta take into account the social-cultural, the civilizational, the interactive, the degrees of politeness and register, so if you think, if you're assessing your interlocutor as a person who's having difficulty in keeping up with you of course you gotta change. It's only polite.

I: Right. You just mentioned some important aspects which are related to language learning and they go beyond just linguistics, just language, I mean, those cultural aspects too. Do you think it's important to include cultural issues in the language class?

T8: Absolutely essential.

I: How do you deal with that? Do you try to separate, do you make distinctions between native cultures and non-native cultures, English as a second language countries or English as a foreign language countries and try to expose your students to those differences that they will, eventually [come up with]

T8: [I try at any rate]. One of my courses is anyway, English for African Studies and so I'm concentrating on African types of English and the kids have to understand the sociocultural reality of different African countries. I choose three, like a triangle, East coast, West coast and South because they're all different Africas, not monolithic, you know, they've all got their own cultures, their own religions, their own habits and so we're looking at English in Nigeria, in Kenya and in South Africa and I try and give this awareness that's different kinds of English by looking at their music, their newspapers, their TV, their soap operas even and I think that's important.

Appendix 3.8: Textbooks and supplementary material analyzed

Publishers	PORTO		TEXTO		LISBOA		AREAL		ASA		OUP	
	9th	12th	8th	10th	9 th	11th	7th	12th	8th	10th	7th	11th
Title	Teen Time 3 (TT3)	Prime Time 3 (PT3)	Cool Zone (COZ)	Englishes (ENG)	Webline (WEB)	Meanings (MEA)	Aerial 7 (AE7)	Aerial 12 (A12)	Plunge (PLU)	Global (GLO)	Project 3 (PR3)	New Hotline Elementary (NHE)
Level	5 (FL1)	6 (FL2) 8 (FL1)	4 (FL1)	4 (FL2) 6 (FL1)	5 (FL1)		1 (FL2)	6 (FL2) 8 (FL1)	4 (FL1)	4 (FL1) 6 (FL2)	3 (FL1)	
Textbook (pages)	✓ (192)	✓ (287)	✓ (160)	✓ (176)	✓ (220)	✓ (351)	✓ (71)	✓ (288)	✓ (128)	✓ (208)	✓ (88)	✓ (111)
Year Published	2000	2001	2003	2003	2000	1999	1998	2002	2003	2003	2000	2000
Workbook (pages)	✓ (63)	×	✓ (64)	✓ (128)	1 (20)	×	1 (77)	✓ (96)	✓ (32)	✓ (47)	✓ (88)	✓ (94)
Pupil's Booklet/ Extension (pages)	✓ (30)	✓ (32)	×	✓ (16)	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Audio Cassette/CD	2	✓	✓	✓	2	3	N.A.	N.A.	✓	✓	✓	✓
Video Cassette	×	×	×	(✓) ⁴	×	×	×	×	×	×	(✓) ⁵	×
Teacher's Book (pages)	✓ (48)	✓ (32)	✓ (64)	✓ (48)	✓ (32)	×	×	×	✓ (126)	✓ (79)	✓ (136)	✓ (163)
Transparencies	×	×	N.A.	✓	×	×	×	✓	×	✓	×	×

Key:

✓ = material analyzed

x = there is no such material in the set

N.A. = material was not available

Notes:

¹ Included in the textbook

² The audio cassette was available until 2002/03. As the publisher was going to adapt the textbook to the new syllabus for 2004/05, the audio cassette was not re-edited. However, it is possible to analyze the content of the audio cassette, though not the accent/pronunciation of the participants, through the tapescripts found in the Teacher's Book/Textbook.

³ The audio cassette was not available at the publisher. However, it is possible to analyze the content of the audio cassette, though not the accent/pronunciation of the participants, through the tapescripts found in the Textbook.

⁴ Although the video cassette was not available for analysis, the teacher's book presents some relevant information about it as far as the scope of this analysis is concerned.

⁵ Although the video cassette (Window on Britain) was not available for analysis, the student's book provides a brief description of its content and aims.

References:

Barros & Pinto, 2000; Barroso et al., 1999; Gonçalves & Torres, 2002; Gonçalves et al., 2003; Hutchinson, 2000a; Hutchinson, 2000b; Pegado et al., 2003; Santos & Faria, 1998; Teixeira & Menezes, 2003; Valente et al., 2000; Viana & Clementino, 2003; Vilela et al., 2001.

Appendix 4.1: Sample of identification of cultural references and references to and uses of varieties of English

Materials analysis

Title: Global (textbook)

School year: 10

Language level: 6 (FL I), 4 (FL II)

Publisher: Asa Editores

A. Language references:

Use of BrE but no introduction/presentation of AmE counterpart:

Vocabulary:

holiday(s) (p. 51, 91, 95, 96, 200)

football (p. 24, 49, 69, 154)

cinema (p. 24, 27, 67, 74, 90, 161)

film (p. 38, 161)

brackets (p. 17, 22, 24, 33, 40, 56, 68, 74, 81, 88, 94, 114, 117, 124, 127, 132, 146, 148, 156, 162, 174, 186, 191, 196, 200)

rubbish (p. 65)

mobile phone (p. 74, 84, 101, 103, 104, 118, 119, 165)

biscuits (p. 187)

exclamation mark (p. 22)

full stop (p. 22)

ill (p. 24, 58, 96, 119, 200)

flat (p. 27, 67, 180)

mad (p. 58)

queue (p. 65, 67, 71)

underground (p. 67)

driving license (p. 183)

Spelling:

dialogue (p. 70)

programmes (p. 144, 150, 151, 154, 165, 169)

metres (p. 109)

favour(ites) (p. 52, 61, 106, 132, 144, 154, 160, 165, 187)

Maths (p. 170)

centre (p. 35, 46, 109, 112, 115, 123, 160)

theatre (p. 46, 67, 200)

travelled/ers/ing (p. 49, 51, 79, 86, 96, 169, 195)

colour (p. 78, 96, 152, 164, 168, 179)

organised/ers/ing/ation (p. 36, 38, 42, 51, 75, 87, 95, 119, 128, 142, 159, 164, 202)

criticise (p. 13, 73)

summarise/ing (p. 13, 52, 97, 101, 110, 193)

analyse/s/d (p. 11, 35, 109, 193, 200)

neighbours (p. 200)

generalise (p. 27, 52)

standardise/ation (p. 32, 107)
emphasise (p. 34)
industrialised (p. 39)
globalisation (p. 43)
anaesthetic (p. 46)
memorise/ing (p. 46, 75, 119, 164, 202)
behaviour (p. 66, 189, 190, 191, 193)
advertise/ment (p. 67)
vandalised (p. 72)
practise (p. 72, 126)
cancelled (p. 79)
modernisation/ing (p. 80, 124)
minimise (p. 80, 173)
realise(d) (p. 89, 92, 106, 127, 182)
modelled (p. 104, 135, 140)
mum (p. 106, 132)
centralised (p. 107)
homogenised/ing (p. 107, 185)
recognise/d (p. 112, 117, 137)
rumours (p. 117)
digitised (p. 123)
liberalising (p. 123)
apologise (p. 137)
plagiarising (p. 136)
idolises (p. 195)

Grammar:

in the street (p. 71, 158)
at home (p. 24, 148, 161, 181)
learnt (p. 182)
'I've got your pen' (use of *to have*) (p. 21)
at the weekends (p. 49)

NOTES:

1. Exercise 2, p. 58; exercise 2 (V) (using *as if* or *like*): there is no reference to AmE characteristics which allow for the use of *like* in expressions which require the use of *as if* in BrE. For example, the key to sentence 'c' in exercise 2, p. 58, is *You look as if you're going to faint*.

2. A list of irregular verbs (bookmark) presents the following verbs: get/got/got, light/lit/lit, wake/woke/waken, but no learn/learnt/learnt, smell/smelt/smelt

Pronunciation:

p. 18, Starting unit, a table with the symbols of the IPA (also on the bookmark): BrE (RP)
p. 19, exercise 1, British pronunciation of *arm*, *dog*; exercise 4, British pronunciation of *first*, *form*

NOTES:

1. p. 15, Starting unit: a cartoon showing an actress and a director on stage, the actress saying "I left my apartment and took a cab", the director remarking "Now try saying it in

ENGLISH". Suggested activity: 'a. explain what is happening in the cartoon, b. Have you ever experienced a situation in which the words you use are for some reason unsuitable?'

2. p. 15-16, Starting unit, Reading comprehension tasks: a text about accents, dialects and varieties (AmE, BrE) of English

Use of AmE but no introduction/presentation of BrE counterpart:

Vocabulary:

expressway (p. 79)
automobiles (p. 79)
garbage (p. 81)
vacation (p. 92, 97)
cellular phone/cellphone/cell number (p. 98, 99, 100, 101, 102, 103, 109, 161, 164)
(1st) grade (p. 106)
subway (p. 155)
elementary school (p. 190)

Spelling:

center (p. 86)
meter(s) (p. 93, 100)
program (p. 100)
neighbor (p. 145)
labor (p. 151)
mom (p. 195)

Grammar:

spilled (p. 79)
'provided that we *arrive home* before 6 p.m.' (p. 180)

Pronunciation:

p. 19, exercise 3: American pronunciation of 'hear', 'heard'

Dictionary work (p. 12, 17, 33, 40, 50, 56, 68, 88, 108, 114, 132, 143, 146, 156, 174, 186, 191, 196): this activity presents the meaning of some words used in the preceding text. It uses definitions from the *Longman Dictionary of English language and Culture*, Longman (1992). One important feature of this dictionary is that it provides both the American and British pronunciations as well as spelling, usage and vocabulary differences in the two varieties (when applied).

Starting unit, Working with phonetics, p. 16 (text 'Accent and dialect'), lines 25-27: "The accent called RP (Received Pronunciation) was the one most closely associated in the past with educated speakers and it is still used as a standard for foreign learners of English."

1. *Page(s)*: 54

Language area: vocabulary, spelling

Language variety: (Canadian English)

Comments: ‘french fries’, ‘catsup’, ‘color’, ‘patronized’ (in a text where a Polish immigrant girl in Vancouver talks about her first days in school and the process of learning English)

NOTE: There is no reference to the phrase/word being features of Canadian English

2. *Page(s):* 80

Language area: spelling

Language variety: AmE, BrE

Comments: exercise—writing the equivalent BrE spelling to the words written in AmE in the text (centered, modernization, criticized, neighborhood, unfavorable, neighboring)

3. *Page(s):* 145

Language area: vocabulary

Language variety: AmE, BrE

Comments: identification of AmE ‘Math’ and BrE ‘Maths’ (explaining the use of ‘Math’ in a text on the same page)

B. Cultural references:

- *Topic:* people, places, facts
- *Domain:* native countries, ESL countries, EFL countries, Portugal, international topics

1. *Page(s):* 30-32

Topic: facts

Domain: UK

Comments: a quiz, a text and comprehension exercises about the history of the English language

2. *Page(s):* 37

Topic: facts

Domain: Portugal

Comments: Research project: the history of the Portuguese language

3. *Page(s):* 38-40

Topic: facts

Domain: international

Comments: a text and exercises about English as an international language of the 20th century

4. *Page(s):* 39

Topic: facts

Domain: international

Comments: a box with information about languages of the world

5. *Page(s):* 43-44

Topic: facts

Domain: international

Comments: a text and exercises about globalisation and the English language

6. *Page(s):* 48-50

Topic: place//facts

Domain: UK//Sweden, France, Italy

Comments: a text and exercises about a British person who has travelled abroad

7. *Page(s):* 52

Topic: place//facts

Domain: UK//Portugal

Comments: a listening comprehension activity about an Englishwoman talking about Portuguese food; a vocabulary exercise about Portuguese food

8. *Page(s):* 53

Topic: facts

Domain: Poland

Comments: a small text about Jews in Poland before World War II

9. *Page(s):* 53

Topic: facts

Domain: Canada

Comments: a box with information about Vancouver

10. *Page(s):* 54-56

Topic: facts

Domain: Canada

Comments: a text and comprehension exercises about a Polish immigrant girl in Vancouver who talks about her first days in school and the process of learning English

11. *Title of lesson/unit:* A world of many languages: Broken English

Page(s): 60-62

Topic: place//facts

Domain: US//UK

Comments: a text and comprehension exercises about the reactions of an American writer to British slang words

12. *Page(s):* 65

Topic: facts

Domain: US, UK, Portugal

Comments: a questionnaire about cultural behaviour (the student's, Portuguese, American, British)

13. *Page(s):* 66-68

Topic: facts

Domain: UK, Portugal, US

Comments: texts and comprehension exercises about British customs, habits and behaviours; establishing comparisons with the Portuguese

14. *Page(s):* 79

Topic: facts

Domain: Europe (international)

Comments: a text about European environmental problems

15. *Page(s):* 85

Topic: facts

Domain: US, the Soviet Union

Comments: a quiz about the space race in the 60s

16. *Page(s):* 92-93

Topic: facts

Domain: US

Comments: a text about space exploration and the US

17. *Page(s)*: 106-107
Topics: place
Domain: Holland
Comments: a text about computers in the classroom taken from an English-language Dutch newspaper
18. *Page(s)*: 109
Topic: place
Domain: Germany
Comments: a text about a device to locate children being tested in Germany
19. *Page(s)*: 130-132
Topic: facts
Domain: US
Comments: a text and comprehension exercises about online dating in the US
20. *Page(s)*: 132
Topic: place
Domain: UK, Portugal
Comments: e-mail addresses
21. *Page(s)*: 141
Topic: people
Domain: UK, US, Portugal
Comments: identifying American, British and Portuguese writers (John Steinbeck, Ernest Hemingway, Arthur Conan Doyle, Sophia de Mello Breyner Andresen, Jose Saramago) through pictures
22. *Page(s)*: 145
Topic: place
Domain: India, US, Britain
Comments: a text with biographical information about the Indian writer Gaeta Kekade (born and raised in India, studied in British schools and is now living in America)
23. *Page(s)*: 151-152
Topic: facts

Domain: Great Britain

Comments: a text and exercises about early British television broadcasts

24. *Page(s):* 178-179

Topic: people

Domain: UK

Comments: an extract of a short story by the British writer Malachi Whiteaker

25. *Page(s):* 183,188

Topic: facts

Domain: Portugal

Comments: a questionnaire/research project about when the average Portuguese/Portuguese teenager starts doing things (e.g. get married, have children, take their driving license...)

26. *Page(s):* 184-185

Topic: place//facts

Domain: Holland//international

Comments: a text taken from a Dutch English-language newspaper about being a teenager in different parts of the world (US, Ethiopia, Bangladesh, Australia...)

27. *Page(s):* 194-196

Topic: people

Domain: US

Comments: a text and comprehension exercises about the American singer Eminem

Appendix 5.1: Students’ familiarity with EFL accents and Affiliation

Crosstab

			I am familiar with some foreign English accents (German, Spanish, French, Chinese,...)		Total
			Yes	No	
School	University	Count	69	72	141
		% within School	48.9%	51.1%	100.0%
	Polytechnic	Count	67	39	106
		% within School	63.2%	36.8%	100.0%
Total	Count	136	111	247	
	% within School	55.1%	44.9%	100.0%	

Appendix 5.2: Students’ familiarity with EFL accents and Course

Crosstab

			I am familiar with some foreign English accents (German, Spanish, French, Chinese,...)		Total
			Yes	No	
Course	TT	Count	62	27	89
		% within Course	69.7%	30.3%	100.0%
	ESP	Count	74	84	158
		% within Course	46.8%	53.2%	100.0%
Total		Count	136	111	247
		% within Course	55.1%	44.9%	100.0%

Appendix 5.3: Students’ familiarity with EFL accents and Length of time studying English

Crosstab

			I am familiar with some foreign English accents (German, Spanish, French, Chinese,...)		Total
			Yes	No	
Length of time studying English	1 to 6 years	Count	4	10	14
		% within Length of time studying English	28.6%	71.4%	100.0%
	7 to 9 years	Count	46	56	102
		% within Length of time studying English	45.1%	54.9%	100.0%
	10 to 12 years	Count	38	32	70
		% within Length of time studying English	54.3%	45.7%	100.0%
	More than 12 years	Count	48	12	60
		% within Length of time studying English	80.0%	20.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	136	110	246
		% within Length of time studying English	55.3%	44.7%	100.0%

Appendix 5.4: Students’ familiarity with ENL varieties and Length of time studying English

Crosstab

			I am familiar with other native varieties (AustE, CanE, SAE,...)		Total
			Yes	No	
Length of time studying English	1 to 6 years	Count	4	10	14
		% within Length of time studying English	28.6%	71.4%	100.0%
	7 to 9 years	Count	47	55	102
		% within Length of time studying English	46.1%	53.9%	100.0%
	10 to 12 years	Count	29	41	70
		% within Length of time studying English	41.4%	58.6%	100.0%
	More than 12 years	Count	38	22	60
		% within Length of time studying English	63.3%	36.7%	100.0%
Total	Count	118	128	246	
	% within Length of time studying English	48.0%	52.0%	100.0%	

Appendix 5.5: Students’ familiarity with ESL varieties and Spending time outside Portugal

Crosstab

			I am familiar with other varieties (IndE, NigE,...)		Total
			Yes	No	
Time outside Portugal	Yes	Count	17	53	70
		% within Time outside Portugal	24.3%	75.7%	100.0%
	No	Count	19	158	177
		% within Time outside Portugal	10.7%	89.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	36	211	247
		% within Time outside Portugal	14.6%	85.4%	100.0%

Appendix 5.6: Mean ranks and frequency per group (affiliation) and statements

	Affiliation	N	Mean Rank
It is important to know linguistic variation of many types	UNI	139	131.26
	POL	104	109.63
	Total	243	
It is important to learn the differences between AmE and BrE	UNI	139	132.75
	POL	106	110.21
	Total	245	

Appendix 5.7: Mean ranks and frequency per group (course) and statements

	Course	N	Mean Rank
It is important to know linguistic variation of many types	TT	88	107.17
	ESP	155	130.42
	Total	243	
It is important to know the differences between AmE and BrE	TT	88	107.79
	ESP	157	131.53
	Total	245	
It is important to know other varieties besides AmE and BrE	TT	88	103.66
	ESP	157	133.84
	Total	245	

Appendix 5.8: Mean ranks and frequency per group (length of time studying English) and statements

	Length of time	N	Mean Rank
It is important to learn about English spoken by non-native speakers	1 to 6 years	13	71.31
	7 to 9 years	101	118.68
	10 to 12 years	70	124.15
	More than 12 years	58	134.46
	Total	242	
It is important to know linguistic variation of many types	1 to 6 years	12	135.96
	7 to 9 years	102	132.31
	10 to 12 years	69	123.70
	More than 12 years	59	97.29
	Total	242	
It is important to know the differences between AmE and BrE	1 to 6 years	13	149.19
	7 to 9 years	102	136.98
	10 to 12 years	69	111.86
	More than 12 years	60	104.34
	Total	244	

Appendix 5.9: Teachers’ affiliation and importance of learning non-native English

<i>Affiliation</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean Rank</i>
UE	7	17.93
UL	10	9.75
ST	6	9.83
SE	3	23.00
Total	26	

Kruskal Wallis Test
Chi-Square 11.807; df 3; Asymp. Sig. .008

Appendix 5.10: Type of country visited and importance of learning non-native English (teachers’ responses)

<i>Time outside Portugal</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean Rank</i>	<i>Sum of Ranks</i>
The teacher has been to an ESC	11	15.32	168.50
The teacher has been to both ESC and NESC	12	8.96	107.50
Total	23		

Mann-Whitney U 29.500; Wilcoxon W 107.500; Z -2.340; Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) .019; Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)] .023 (not corrected for ties)

Appendix 5.11: Native and non-native teachers and importance of learning international English

	<i>Native English Teacher</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean Rank</i>	<i>Sum of ranks</i>
It is important to learn about the features of English which can be understood internationally	Yes	8	16.50	132.00
	No	17	11.35	193.00
	Total	25		

Mann-Whitney U 40.000; Wilcoxon W 193.000; Z -2.185; Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) .029; Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)] .110 (not corrected for ties)

Appendix 5.12: Mean scores and standard deviation in the five categories
(friendly accent, clear accent, polished accent, no accent, not funny accent)

Type of speaker		Friendly accent	Clear accent	Polished accent	No accent	Not funny accent
ENL	Mean	2.4980	1.7930	2.2490	3.2346	1.5792
	N	244	244	245	243	240
	Std. Deviation	.7179	.6977	.6507	1.0585	.7735
ESL	Mean	2.8340	3.2305	2.9110	3.3760	2.1807
	N	241	243	236	242	238
	Std. Deviation	.9647	1.0466	1.0213	1.1429	1.2277
EFL	Mean	2.8610	2.9878	3.3416	3.1653	2.4253
	N	241	246	243	245	241
	Std. Deviation	.7362	.7863	.6868	.9344	1.0117
Total	Mean	2.7300	2.6705	2.8315	3.2582	2.0619
	N	726	733	724	730	719
	Std. Deviation	.8293	1.0608	.9189	1.0506	1.0797

Appendix 5.13: Students’ reaction to accents (‘Friendly’ accent)

Descriptives

Friendly scores

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
ENL	244	2.4980	.7179	4.596E-02	2.4074	2.5885
ESL	241	2.8340	.9647	6.214E-02	2.7116	2.9564
EFL	241	2.8610	.7362	4.743E-02	2.7676	2.9544
Total	726	2.7300	.8293	3.078E-02	2.6696	2.7905

ANOVA

Friendly scores

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	19.882	2	9.941	15.014	.000
Within Groups	478.703	723	.662		
Total	498.585	725			

Friendly scores

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Type of speaker	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
ENL	244	2.4980	
ESL	241		2.8340
EFL	241		2.8610
Sig.		1.000	.929

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 241.992.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Appendix 5.14: Students’ reaction to accents (‘Clear’ accent)

Descriptives

Clear scores

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
ENL	244	1.7930	.6977	4.467E-02	1.7050	1.8810
ESL	243	3.2305	1.0466	6.714E-02	3.0982	3.3627
EFL	246	2.9878	.7863	5.013E-02	2.8891	3.0865
Total	733	2.6705	1.0608	3.918E-02	2.5936	2.7475

ANOVA

Clear scores

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	288.827	2	144.414	197.103	.000
Within Groups	534.856	730	.733		
Total	823.683	732			

Clear scores

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Type of speaker	N	Subset for alpha = .05		
		1	2	3
ENL	244	1.7930		
EFL	246		2.9878	
ESL	243			3.2305
Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

- a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 244.327.
- b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Appendix 5.15: Students’ reaction to accents (‘Polished’ accent)

Descriptives

Polished scores

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
ENL	245	2.2490	.6507	4.157E-02	2.1671	2.3309
ESL	236	2.9110	1.0213	6.648E-02	2.7800	3.0420
EFL	243	3.3416	.6868	4.406E-02	3.2548	3.4284
Total	724	2.8315	.9189	3.415E-02	2.7644	2.8985

ANOVA

Polished scores

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	147.848	2	73.924	115.218	.000
Within Groups	462.594	721	.642		
Total	610.442	723			

Polished scores

Tukey HSD^b

Type of speaker	N	Subset for alpha = .05		
		1	2	3
ENL	245	2.2490		
ESL	236		2.9110	
EFL	243			3.3416
Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000

- Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
- a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 241.271.
 - b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Appendix 5.16: Students’ reaction to accents (‘No’ accent)

Descriptives

No accent scores

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
ENL	243	3.2346	1.0585	6.790E-02	3.1008	3.3683
ESL	242	3.3760	1.1429	7.347E-02	3.2313	3.5208
EFL	245	3.1653	.9344	5.970E-02	3.0477	3.2829
Total	730	3.2582	1.0506	3.888E-02	3.1819	3.3346

ANOVA

No accent scores

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.610	2	2.805	2.552	.079
Within Groups	798.966	727	1.099		
Total	804.576	729			

Appendix 5.17: Students’ reaction to accents (‘Not funny’ accent)

Descriptives

Not funny accent

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
ENL	240	1.5792	.7735	4.993E-02	1.4808	1.6775
ESL	238	2.1807	1.2277	7.958E-02	2.0239	2.3374
EFL	241	2.4253	1.0117	6.517E-02	2.2969	2.5537
Total	719	2.0619	1.0797	4.027E-02	1.9828	2.1409

ANOVA

Not funny accent

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	91.113	2	45.557	43.731	.000
Within Groups	745.883	716	1.042		
Total	836.996	718			

Not funny accent

Tukey HSD ^{a,b}

Type of speaker	N	Subset for alpha = .05		
		1	2	3
ENL	240	1.5792		
ESL	238		2.1807	
EFL	241			2.4253
Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

- a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 239.660.
- b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Appendix 5.18: Students’ reaction to EFL accents and Affiliation

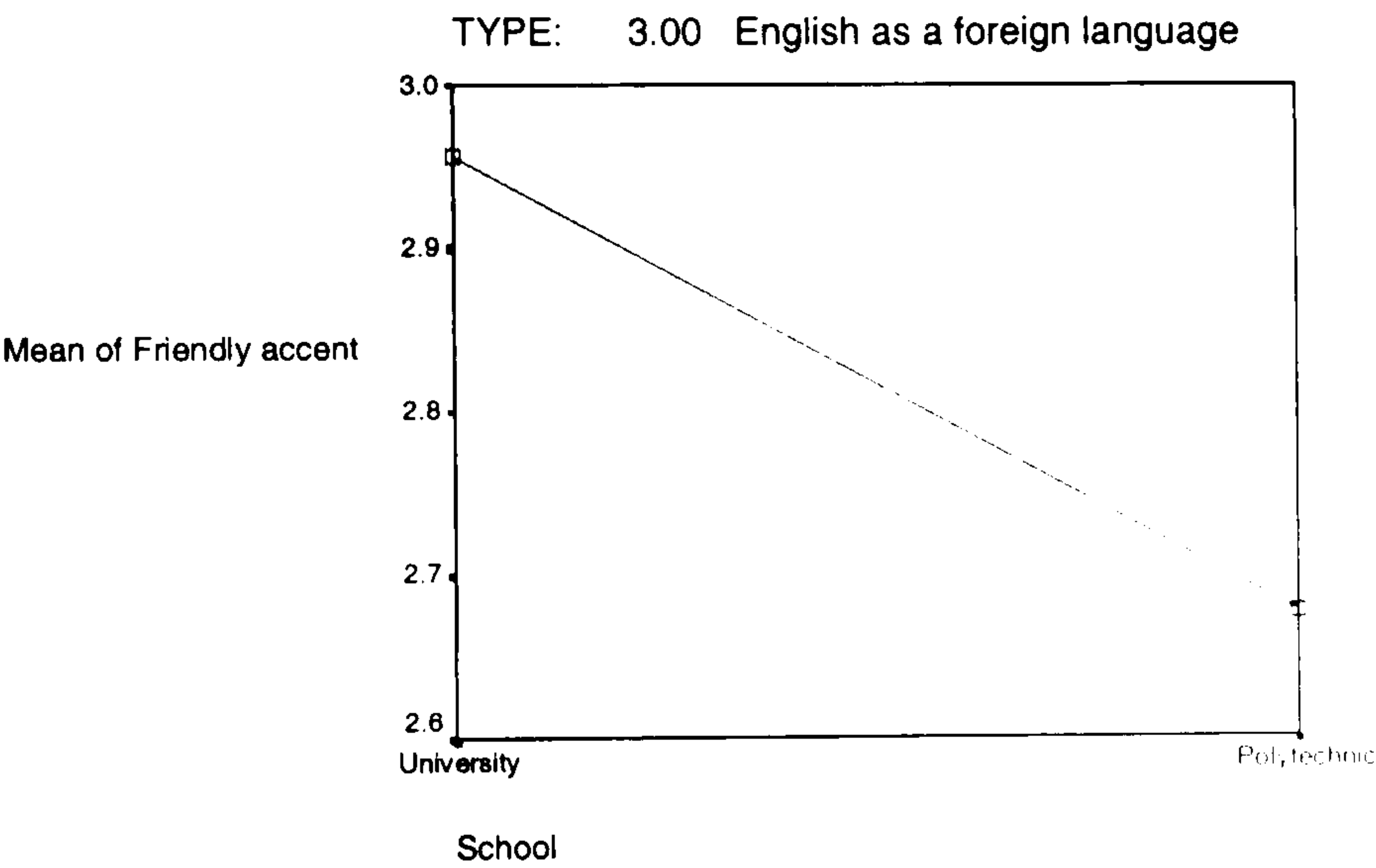
Descriptives: Friendly accent/EFL speakers

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
University	136	2.9559	.9803	8.406E-02	2.7896	3.1221	1.00	5.00
Polytechnic	105	2.6762	.9250	9.027E-02	2.4972	2.8552	1.00	5.00
Total	241	2.8340	.9647	6.214E-02	2.7116	2.9564	1.00	5.00

ANOVA: Friendly accent/EFL speakers

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	4.635	1	4.635	5.065	.025
Within groups	218.726	239	.915		
Total	223.361	240			

Means plot:



Appendix 5.19: Students’ reaction to ENL accents and Course

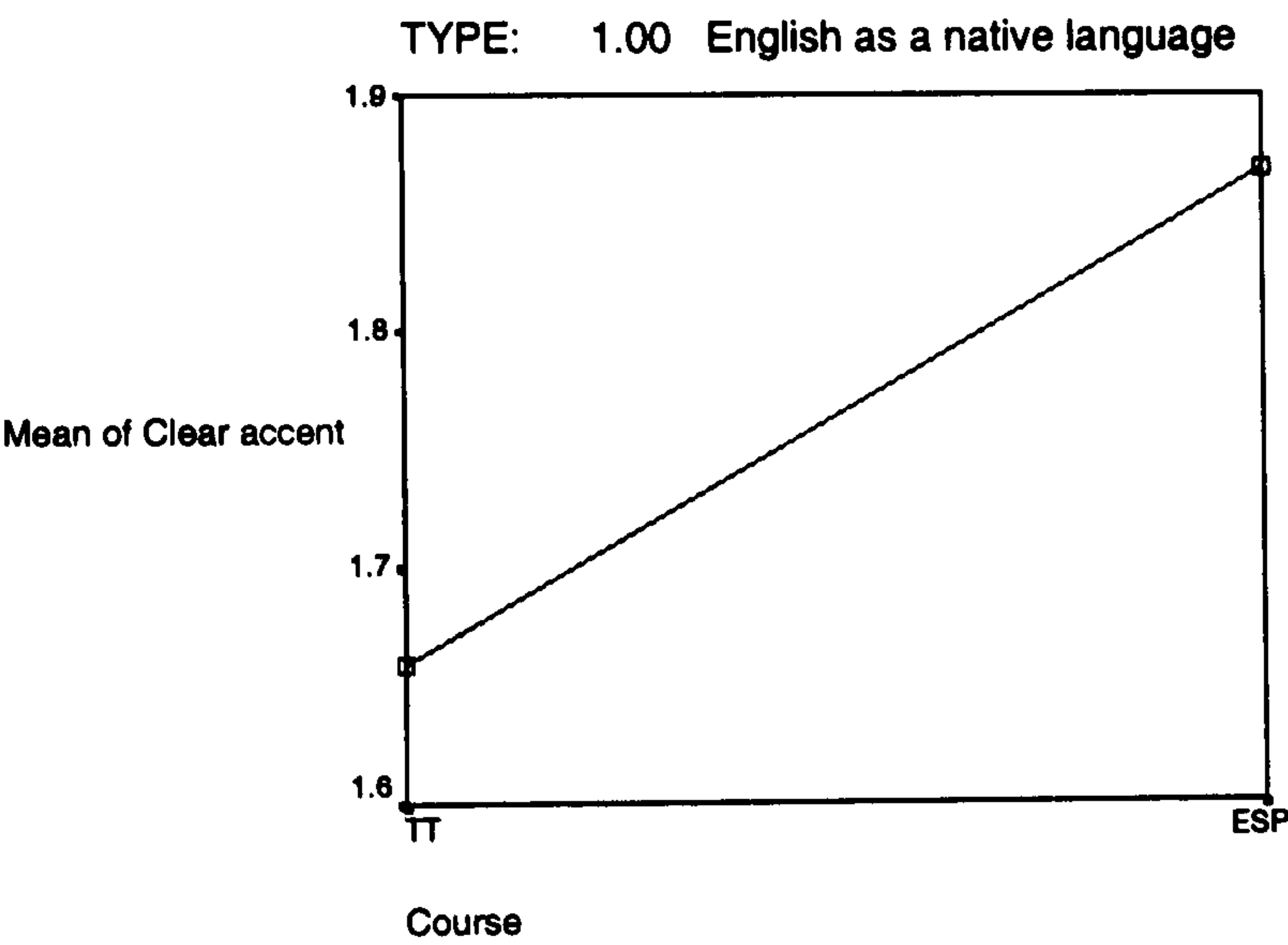
Descriptives: Clear accent/ENL speakers

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
TT	88	1.6591	.7174	7.647E-02	1.5071	1.8111	1.00	4.50
ESP	156	1.8686	.6771	5.421E-02	1.7615	1.9757	1.00	4.50
Total	244	1.7930	.6977	4.467E-02	1.7050	1.8810	1.00	4.50

ANOVA: Clear accent/ENL speakers

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	2.469	1	2.469	5.159	.024
Within groups	115.829	242	.479		
Total	118.298	243			

Means plot:



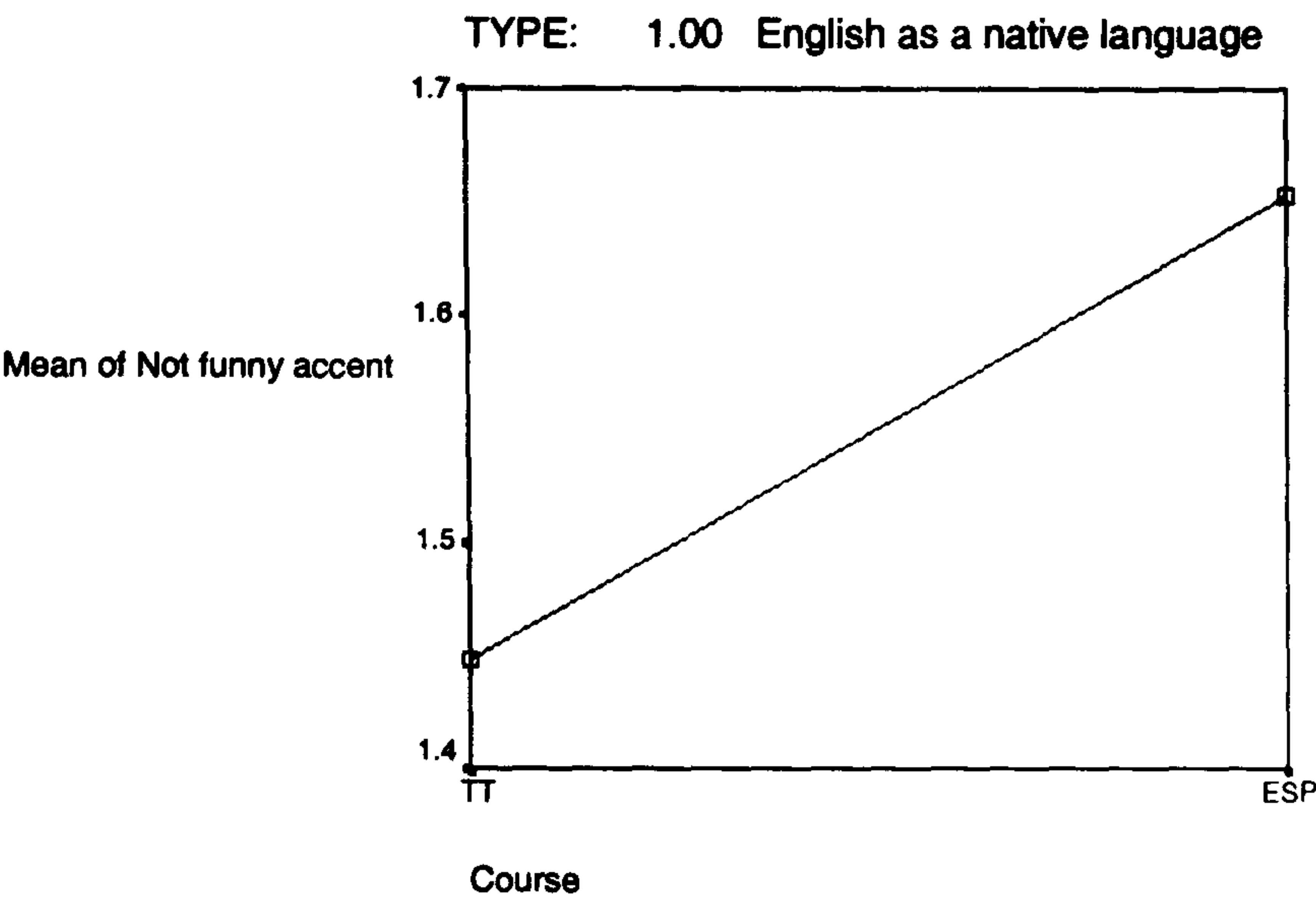
Descriptives: Not funny accent/ENL speakers

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
TT	87	1.4483	.7031	7.538E-02	1.2984	1.5981	1.00	3.50
ESP	153	1.6536	.8035	6.496E-02	1.5253	1.7819	1.00	4.50
Total	240	1.5792	.7735	4.993E-02	1.4808	1.6775	1.00	4.50

ANOVA: Not funny accent/ENL speakers

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	2.338	1	2.338	3.956	.048
Within groups	140.658	238	.591		
Total	142.996	239			

Means plot:



Appendix 5.20: Students’ reaction to EFL accents and Length of time studying English

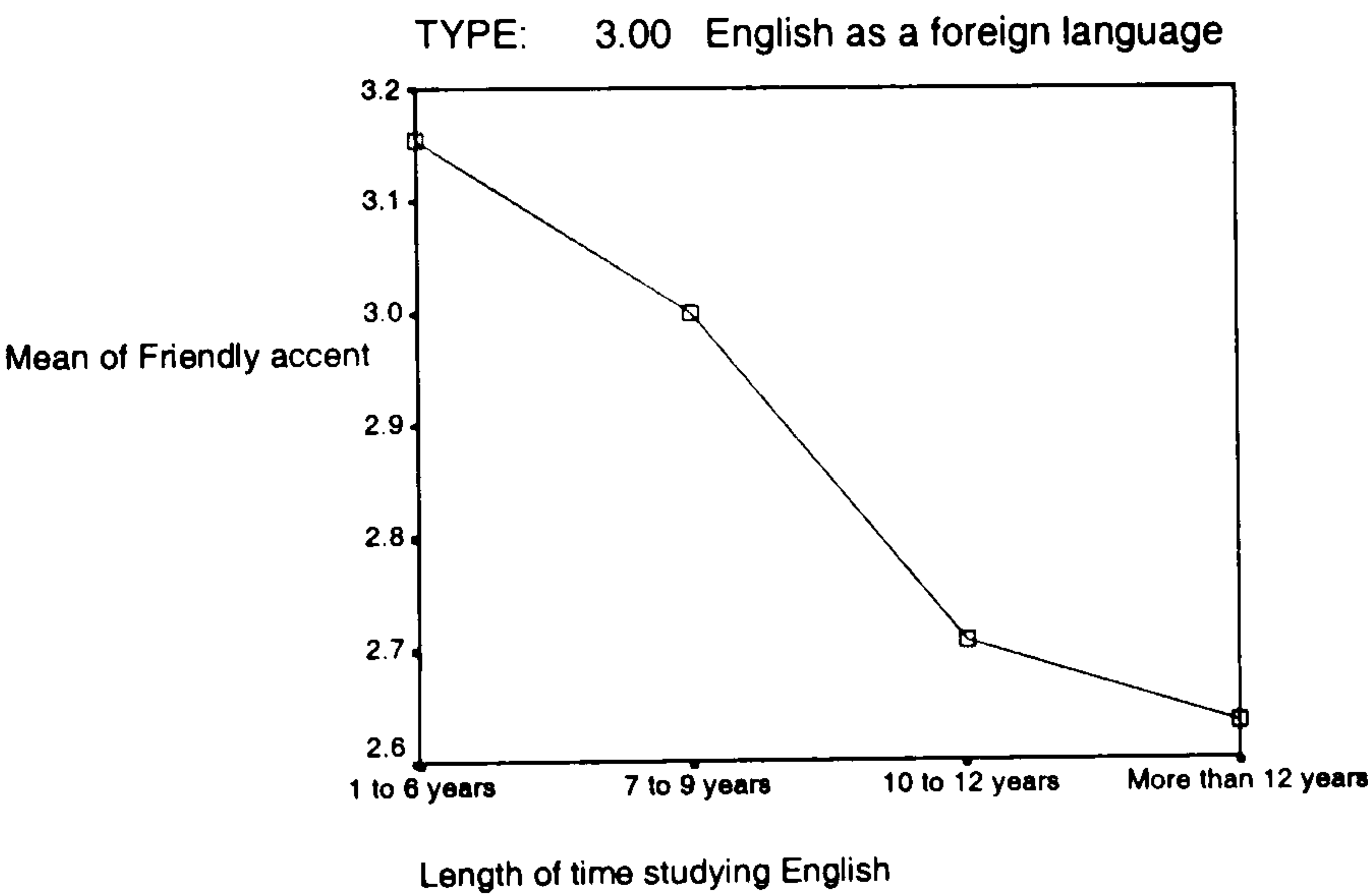
Descriptives: Friendly accent/EFL speakers

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1 to 6 years	13	3.1538	1.2810	.3553	2.3797	3.9280	1.00	5.00
7 to 9 years	100	3.0000	.8646	8.646E-02	2.8285	3.1715	1.00	5.00
10 to 12 years	68	2.7059	1.0083	.1223	2.4618	2.9499	1.00	5.00
More than 12 years	60	2.6333	.9561	.1234	2.3863	2.8803	1.00	5.00
Total	241	2.8340	.9647	6.214E-02	2.7116	2.9564	1.00	5.00

ANOVA: Friendly accent/EFL speakers

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	7.618	3	2.539	2.789	.041
Within groups	215.743	237	.910		
Total	223.361	240			

Means plot:



Appendix 5.21: Identification of speakers’ origin (UK & US)

<i>UK speaker</i>	
UK	65.6%
US	11.3%
Other ENL (Australia, Canada, South Africa)	8.5%
<i>TOTAL ENL</i>	85.4%

<i>US speaker</i>	
US	52.6%
England	13%
Other ENL (Australia, Canada, Ireland, South Africa, New Zealand)	11.3%
<i>TOTAL ENL</i>	76.9%

Appendix 5.22: Suggested speakers’ country of origin and frequency (in brackets)

Speaker A US (130)	Speaker B India (48)	Speaker C UK (162)	Speaker D Portugal (219)	Speaker E Spain (5)
Australia (9) Canada (7) England (32) France (1) Germany (4) India (1) Ireland (5) Italy (1) New Zealand (2) Portugal (3) Russia (1) South Africa (5) Spain (1)	Afghanistan (1) Angola (1) Australia (4) Belgium (1) Brazil (1) Canada (5) Cape Verde (1) England (12) France (9) Germany (15) Holland (2) Iraq (3) Ireland (7) Italy (3) Morocco (1) Nigeria (5) Pakistan (2) Portugal (4) Russia (4) South Africa (25) Saudi Arabia (3) Scotland (4) Spain (6) Turkey (2) US (4) Venezuela (1) Zimbabwe (2)	Australia (15) Brazil (1) Canada (3) France (2) Germany (1) Holland (1) Ireland (2) New Zealand (1) Portugal (1) South Africa (3) Spain (1) US (28)	Australia (1) Belgium (1) Brazil (1) France (2) Philippines (1) Russia (1) South Africa (1) Spain (4)	Australia (34) Belgium (1) Brazil (1) Canada (9) Chile (1) England (30) France (9) Germany (19) Holland (3) India (5) Ireland (6) Italy (2) Jamaica (1) Japan (1) Nigeria (2) Portugal (1) Russia (1) South Africa (13) Scotland (3) Sweden (1) Switzerland (1) US (15) Zaire (1)

Appendix 5.23: Students’ identification of the speaker’s origin (PORTUGAL) and Affiliation

Crosstab

			School		Total
			University	Polytechnic	
Identification of the speaker’s origin – PORTUGAL	Yes	Count % within Identification of the speaker’s origin - PORTUGAL	118 53.9%	101 46.1%	219 100.0%
	No	Count % within Identification of the speaker’s origin - PORTUGAL	13 81.3%	3 18.8%	16 100.0%
Total		Count % within Identification of the speaker’s origin - PORTUGAL	131 55.7%	104 44.3%	235 100.0%

Appendix 5.24: Students’ identification of the speaker’s origin (USA and UK) and Course

Crosstab

			Course		Total
			TT	ESP	
Identification of the speaker's origin - USA	Yes	Count % within Identification of the speaker's origin - USA	41 31.5%	89 68.5%	130 100.0%
	No	Count % within Identification of the speaker's origin - USA	35 47.3%	39 52.7%	74 100.0%
Total		Count % within Identification of the speaker's origin - USA	76 37.3%	128 62.7%	204 100.0%

Crosstab

			Course		Total
			TT	ESP	
Identification of the speaker's origin - UK	Yes	Count % within Course	66 81.5%	96 67.6%	162 72.6%
	No	Count % within Course	15 18.5%	46 32.4%	61 27.4%
Total		Count % within Course	81 100.0%	142 100.0%	223 100.0%

Appendix 5.25: Students’ identification of the speaker’s origin (INDIA and UK) and Length of time studying English

Crosstab

			Length of time studying English				Total
			1 to 6 years	7 to 9 years	10 to 12 years	More than 12 years	
Identification of the speaker's origin - INDIA	Yes	Count % within Identification of the speaker's origin - INDIA	2 4.2%	13 27.1%	10 20.8%	23 47.9%	48 100.0%
	No	Count % within Identification of the speaker's origin - INDIA	8 5.3%	66 43.7%	47 31.1%	30 19.9%	151 100.0%
Total		Count % within Identification of the speaker's origin - INDIA	10 5.0%	79 39.7%	57 28.6%	53 26.6%	199 100.0%

Crosstab

			Length of time studying English				Total
			1 to 6 years	7 to 9 years	10 to 12 years	More than 12 years	
Identification of the speaker's origin - UK	Yes	Count % within Length of time studying English	6 50.0%	66 71.7%	39 66.1%	51 86.4%	162 73.0%
	No	Count % within Length of time studying English	6 50.0%	26 28.3%	20 33.9%	8 13.6%	60 27.0%
Total		Count % within Length of time studying English	12 100.0%	92 100.0%	59 100.0%	59 100.0%	222 100.0%

Appendix 5.26: Students’ interview – Video Activity: responses of subjects (identification of speaker’s gender, age and place of origin/language affiliation)

Speakers	Carina (S1)	Sara (S2)	Barbara (S3)	Cristina (S4)	Vania (S5)	Carolina (S6)	Karin (S7)	Luis (S8)	Vitor (S9)	Monica (S10)
Sonia Fernandez (F, 39, Cuba)	F 25-30/early 30s Portugal (EFL)	F +/- 25 EFL	F +/- 30 US//EFL	F +/- 30 Portugal (EFL)	F Early 30s/older US	F +/- 40 EFL	F 25-30 EFL	F Early 30s Europe//Australia, Canada	F 25-35//younger ESL	F +/- 30 US
Simon Freeman (M, 56, England)	M early 40s//50- 60 ESL//ESL ⁴² , ENL	M +/- 40//+/- 50 Britain	M +/- 30/early 30s ESL ⁴³	M +/- 40//late 50s Scotland, Germany//ESL ⁴⁴	M +/- 40//50-60 England	M +/- 45//older ENL ⁴⁵	M 30-35//+/- 40 EFL ⁴⁶	M 40-50//older Britain//Israel	M 35-40//older ENL//England ⁴⁷	M 40-50//older England ⁴⁸
Sarimah Shamsudin (F, 30s, Malaysia)	F 45//younger EFL//Japan, China, Middle East ⁴⁹ , India	F 35-40//25-30 ESL//India	F +/- 20 EFL	F 30-40//younger Germany//India ⁵⁰ (ESL)	F +/- 40// younger India, Pakistan	F 45-50//younger ESL	F +/- 30 EFL	F 45-50//younger Germany, Austria // Palestine, India	F 25-35 Asia, India	F 30-40 India (ESL)
Emma Ushioda (F, 41, Ireland)	F 25-30//older ENL, Sweden	F +/- 30//+/- 40 ENL// ESL ⁵¹	F +/- 30//+/- 40 ENL	F 20-30 ENL	F +/- 30// older England	F 35-40 Britain, Canada (ENL)	F +/- 35//older ENL	F Early 30s//older ENL, ESL//Japan, Korea	F 30-40 ENL ⁵²	F +/- 30 Europe, Nordic country (EFL) // Asia

⁴² “because of what he says”

⁴³ “because of what he says”

⁴⁴ “it has to do with what he says”

⁴⁵ “in spite of what he says”

⁴⁶ “because of the content of the interview”

⁴⁷ “in spite of the content of the interview”

⁴⁸ “if content was to be considered, it would be another place of origin”

⁴⁹ “because of the clothes”

⁵⁰ “because of her appearance; if it were just for her voice I’d say Germany”

⁵¹ “based on physical appearance”

⁵² “in spite of her appearance”

Ahmad Idris (M, 25, Syria)	M 50/late 20s (EFL) Spain// EFL	M +/- 35 ESL	M +/- 40 EFL, Jamaica	M 30-35//younger Germany, Austria (EFL)//India, Morocco (EFL)	M +/- 40// younger India	M 40-45//younger EFL	M +/- 35 ESL	M 50-60//younger Europe (EFL) // Africa	M 25-30 Africa, Jamaica, India//Caribbean	M 40-50//younger Europe (EFL)// Africa, India (ESL)
Charles Tante (M, 36, Cameroon)	M 30 EFL	M +/- 30 ESL//Africa (ESL or EFL)	M +/- 30 EFL	M Early 30s Africa (ESL)	M Early 30s Arab country //Africa	M +/- 30 ESL//Nigeria (ESL)	M 30-35 Africa (ESL)	M 30-40 South America, Jamaica//Jamaica, Africa (ESL)	M 30-35 Jamaica (ESL)// ESL, EFL	M +/- 30//older India (ESL)// Africa (EFL)

Codes:

1. “//” is used to indicate changes in the subject’s opinion about the speaker after watching the video. Ex. __ (after listening) __//__ (after watching the video) __
2. F: female, M: male; S1: subject 1, S2: subject 2,...

Appendix 5.27: Using varieties – frequency and percentage of answers (per category/total)

	a. Mixing		b. Consistency		c. Cons/Mix	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
SE/TT	12	37.5	14	43.75	2	6.25
UL/TT	17	29.82	14	24.56	17	29.82
ST/ESP	30	40.54	25	33.78	4	5.4
UE/ESP	45	53.57	23	27.38	6	7.14
Total	104	49.76	76	36.36	29	13.88

Appendix 5.28: Using varieties – frequency/percentage of teachers’ answers in category *a* and length of time teaching English

	<i>N who answered in category a</i>	<i>N (total)</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
1 to 10 years	5	7	71.42%
11 to 20 years	4	8	50%
More than 20 years	5	11	45.45%

Appendix 5.29: Using varieties – frequency/percentage of teachers’ answers in category *b* and experience in teaching English

	<i>N who answered in category b</i>	<i>N (total)</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
TT	2	3	66.67%
ESP	3	12	25%
TT+ESP	2	11	18.18%

Appendix 6.1: Medians and percentiles for statements (Learning about specific cultures)

		British culture	American culture	Other ENL cultures (Canada, South Africa, Australia,...)	ESL cultures (Nigeria, India, Hong Kong)	EFL cultures (France, Japan, Russia,...)	International cultural aspects not specific to any country	Portuguese culture
N	Valid	246	246	244	243	240	245	245
	Missing	1	1	3	4	7	2	2
Median		2.0000	2.0000	2.0000	3.0000	4.0000	2.0000	3.0000
Mode		1.00 ^a	2.00	2.00	3.00	3.00	2.00	3.00
Percentiles	25	1.0000	2.0000	2.0000	2.0000	3.0000	2.0000	2.0000
	50	2.0000	2.0000	2.0000	3.0000	4.0000	2.0000	3.0000
	75	2.0000	3.0000	3.0000	4.0000	4.0000	3.0000	4.0000

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

Appendix 6.2: Mean ranks and frequency per group (course) and statements

	Course	N	Mean Rank
British culture	TT	89	89.63
	ESP	157	142.70
	Total	246	
American culture	TT	89	91.29
	ESP	157	141.76
	Total	246	
Other ENL cultures	TT	88	96.06
	ESP	156	137.42
	Total	244	
International cultural aspects	TT	89	147.09
	ESP	156	109.26
	Total	245	

Appendix 6.3: Mean ranks and frequency per group (length of time studying English) and statements

	Length of time	N	Mean Rank
British culture	1 to 6 years	13	153.92
	7 to 9 years	102	142.70
	10 to 12 years	70	109.81
	More than 12 years	60	98.20
	Total	245	
American culture	1 to 6 years	13	168.31
	7 to 9 years	102	144.26
	10 to 12 years	70	111.76
	More than 12 years	60	90.15
	Total	245	
Other ENL cultures	1 to 6 years	12	149.71
	7 to 9 years	102	136.98
	10 to 12 years	70	123.76
	More than 12 years	60	90.97
	Total	244	
International cultural aspects	1 to 6 years	13	94.73
	7 to 9 years	102	108.21
	10 to 12 years	70	135.77
	More than 12 years	59	137.58
	Total	244	

Appendix 6.4: Mean ranks and frequency per group (spending time outside Portugal) and statements

	Time outside Portugal	N	Mean Rank
American culture	Yes	70	109.51
	No	176	129.06
	Total	246	
ESL cultures	Yes	69	104.91
	No	174	128.78
	Total	243	

Appendix 6.5: Mean ranks and frequency per group (length of time teaching English) and statement

	Length of time teaching	N	Mean Rank
International cultural aspects	1 to 10 years	7	12.43
	11 to 20 years	8	18.69
	More than 20 years	11	10.41
	Total	26	

Appendix 6.6: Mean ranks and frequency per group (language affiliation) and statement

	NTs vs. NNTs	N	Mean Rank
ESL cultures	NT	8	12.25
	NNT	17	13.35
	Total	25	

Appendix 6.7: Mean ranks and frequency per group (experience in teaching English) and statement

	Experience in teaching	N	Mean Rank
International cultural aspects	ESP	12	14.58
	TT + ESP	11	9.18
	Total	23	

Appendix 6.8: Mean ranks and frequency per group (course) and statement

	Course	N	Mean Rank
Cultural patterns of English speaking & non-English speaking peoples	TT	88	110.13
	ESP	156	129.48
	Total	244	

Appendix 6.9: Mean ranks and frequency per group (length of time studying English) and statement

	Length of time	N	Mean Rank
Different cultures use English differently	1 to 6 years	13	144.50
	7 to 9 years	102	132.47
	10 to 12 years	69	119.80
	More than 12 years	60	103.88
	Total	244	

Appendix 7.1: Students’ attitude toward NSs’ and NNSs’ use of English and Course

			Course		Total
			TT	ESP	
NSs’ and NNSs’ use of English	NSs should use English with NNSs as if talking to other NSs	Count % within NSs’ and NNSs’ use of English	44 43.6%	57 56.4%	101 100.0%
	NSs should use English with NNSs in a way to make it easy to understand	Count % within NSs’ and NNSs’ use of English	44 30.3%	101 69.7%	145 100.0%
Total		Count % within NSs’ and NNSs’ use of English	88 35.8%	158 64.2%	246 100.0%

Appendix 7.2: Students’ attitude toward NSs’ and NNSs’ use of English and Spending time outside Portugal

			Time outside Portugal		Total
			The student has been to an ESC	The student has been to a NESC	
NSs’ and NNSs’ use of English	NSs should expect non-natives to sound like natives	Count % within NSs’ and NNSs’ use of English	7 70.0%	3 30.0%	10 100.0%
	NSs should be more tolerant towards non-natives	Count % within NSs’ and NNSs’ use of English	11 19.0%	47 81.0%	58 100.0%
Total		Count % within NSs’ and NNSs’ use of English	18 26.5%	50 73.5%	68 100.0%

Appendix 7.3: Students’ choice of NTs or NNTs – frequency and percentage

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Always with a native teacher	47	19.0	19.0	19.0
	Always with a non-native teacher	11	4.5	4.5	23.5
	It doesn't matter if it's a native or a non-native teacher	92	37.2	37.2	60.7
	With native and non-native teachers	97	39.3	39.3	100.0
	Total	247	100.0	100.0	

Appendix 7.4: Teachers’ views on NTs and NNTs in ELT – frequency and percentage

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Always with a native teacher	1	3.8	4.2	4.2
	It doesn't matter if it's a native or non-native teacher	6	23.1	25.0	29.2
	With native and nonnative teachers	17	65.4	70.8	100.0
	Total	24	92.3	100.0	
Missing	System	2	7.7		
Total		26	100.0		

Appendix 7.5: Students' motivational factors

Factor 1: *instrumental motivation*

- a. to write professional reports and letters
- e. to read professional textbooks, reports and articles
- k. to talk to English-speaking people in work situations
- p. to talk to non-native speakers of English in work situations

Factor 2: *integrative motivation*

- d. to talk to native speakers in English-speaking countries
- h. to watch movies
- j. to watch TV
- m. to listen to music
- o. because I like the countries where English is spoken
- u. because I like the people who are native speakers

Factor 3: *assimilative motivation*

- b. to get a job in an English-speaking country
- i. to study in an English-speaking country
- s. because it will help me think and behave as native speakers do

Factor 4: *“international use” motivation*

- c. to talk to people all over the world
- g. to talk to foreigners in Portugal
- l. to write messages in chat rooms in the internet
- r. to participate in video conferences in the internet
- t. to read internet sites
- v. to write personal letters and e-mails

Factor 5: *personal satisfaction*

- f. to read books and magazines for pleasure
- n. to make a good impression on other people
- q. because a knowledge of another language will make me a better person

Appendix 7.6: Students’ motivational factors – mean scores

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Instrumental motivation	247	1.00	4.75	2.1623	.6816
Integrative motivation	246	1.00	4.67	2.7570	.6706
Assimilative motivation	245	1.00	5.00	2.6272	.8844
"International use" motivation	246	1.00	4.67	2.5752	.5957
Personal satisfaction	246	1.00	5.00	2.9201	.7710
Valid N (listwise)	245				

Appendix 7.7: Students’ motivation to learn English and Affiliation

Affiliation		Instrumental motivation
University	Mean	2.2683
	N	141
	Std. Deviation	.6612
Polytechnic	Mean	2.0212
	N	106
	Std. Deviation	.6858
Total	Mean	2.1623
	N	247
	Std. Deviation	.6816

ANOVA:

		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Instrumental motivation/ Affiliation	Between groups (Combined)	3.695	1	3.695	8.184	.005
	Within groups	110.599	245	.451		
	Total	114.294	246			

Appendix 7.8: Students’ motivation to learn English and Course

Course		Instrumental motivation	Integrative motivation	Personal satisfaction
TT	Mean	2.3202	2.6404	2.7753
	N	89	89	89
	Std. Deviation	.7061	.6547	.8269
ESP	Mean	2.0733	2.8231	3.0021
	N	158	157	157
	Std. Deviation	.6530	.6726	.7275
Total	Mean	2.1623	2.7570	2.9201
	N	247	246	246
	Std. Deviation	.6816	.6706	.7710

ANOVA:

		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Instrumental motivation/ Course	Between groups (Combined)	3.471	1	3.471	7.673	.006
	Within groups	110.823	245	.452		
	Total	114.294	246			
Integrative motivation/ Course	Between groups (Combined)	1.896	1	1.896	4.272	.040
	Within groups	108.280	244	.444		
	Total	110.176	245			
Personal satisfaction/ Course	Between groups (Combined)	2.923	1	2.923	4.997	.026
	Within groups	142.727	244	.585		
	Total	145.650	245			

Appendix 7.9: Students’ motivation to learn English and Length of time studying English

Length of time studying English		Integrative motivation
1 to 6 years	Mean	2.8897
	N	13
	Std. Deviation	.6768
7 to 9 years	Mean	2.8846
	N	102
	Std. Deviation	.6979
10 to 12 years	Mean	2.6919
	N	70
	Std. Deviation	.6601
More than 12 years	Mean	2.5833
	N	60
	Std. Deviation	.6017
Total	Mean	2.7561
	N	245
	Std. Deviation	.6718

ANOVA:

		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Integrative motivation/ Length of time studying English	Between groups (Combined)	3.997	3	1.332	3.026	.030
	Within groups	106.120	241	.440		
	Total	110.117	244			

Appendix 7.10: Students’ motivation to learn English and Spending time in an ESC or a NESC

Time outside Portugal		Assimilative motivation
The student has been in an ESC	Mean	2.0000
	N	18
	Std. Deviation	.6667
The student has been in a NESC	Mean	2.7600
	N	50
	Std. Deviation	.9643
Total	Mean	2.5588
	N	68
	Std. Deviation	.9523

ANOVA:

		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Assimilative motivation/ ESC-NESC	Between groups (Combined)	7.645	1	7.645	9.498	.003
	Within groups	53.120	66	.805		
	Total	60.765	67			